REMARKS

Applicants have cancelled Claims 1-3, 7-10 and 15-16 without prejudice to, or disclaimer of, the subject matter contained therein. Applicants maintain that the cancellation of a claim makes no admission as to its patentability and reserve the right to pursue the subject matter of the cancelled claim in this or any other patent application.

Applicants have amended Claims 4, 5, and 6 to delete elements (a)-(b). Claims 4 and 5 are amended to delete the language "or wherein said isolated nucleic acid encodes a polypeptide that is more highly expressed in normal lung tissue compared to lung tumor." Claims 4-6 and 12-14 have been amended to delete "the full-length coding sequence of" and to add "nucleotides 100-966 of." Claim 14 is amended to include "or a complement thereof" to amended elements (a)-(c), and the following text "wherein said isolated nucleic acid molecule is suitable for use as a PCR primer, or probe." Claim 17 is amended to depend from Claim 4. New Claims 21-26 have been added. Claim 19 is amended to recite "An isolated host cell."

Applicants submit that no new matter has been added by the amendments, and that support for the amendments can be found throughout the specification. For example, support for the amendment to Claims 4 and 5 regarding differential expression in lung tumor can be found in Example 18 beginning at paragraph [0529], as well as paragraph [0336] of the specification. Support for the amendment of Claims 4-6 and 12-14 adding the phrase "nucleotides 100-966 of" can be found, for example, in paragraphs [0035], [0036], [0445], [0196], Table 7, and Figures 9 and 10. Support for the amendments to Claim 14 can be found, for example, at paragraphs [0317], and [0327] of the specification. Support for new Claims 21-26 can be found, for example, in the claims as originally filed, and paragraphs [0227] and [0317].

Applicants thank the Examiner for the review of the instant application and withdrawing the objection to the specification. Applicants acknowledge the Examiner's withdrawal of the rejection of claims under 35 U.S.C. § 112, second paragraph, as being indefinite. Claims 4-6, 11-14, and 17-31 are presented for examination. Applicants respond below to the specific rejections raised by the PTO in the Office Action mailed March 30, 2005. For the reasons set forth below, Applicants respectfully traverse.

Correction of Inventorship under 37 CFR §1.48(b)

On page 12 of the previous Amendment and Response (mailed December 7, 2004), Applicants requested that several inventors listed on page 10 of the previous Amendment and Response be deleted, as these inventors' inventions are no longer being claimed in the present application as a result of prosecution. Applicants respectfully submit that this statement satisfies the requirement of 37 C.F.R. 1.48(b)(1), and note that the processing fee of $130 required under 37 C.F.R. 1.48(b)(2) was submitted with the previous response. Applicants acknowledge that Examiner has indicated that the inventorship has been changed. However, Applicants have not received a corrected filing receipt. Therefore Applicants request that the Examiner confirm that the inventors listed previously were deleted as requested.

Rejections under 35 U.S.C. § 112, first paragraph – Enablement

The PTO maintains the rejection of Claims 1-7, 9, 14, and 17-20 as lacking enablement. Applicants note that the PTO has stated that the specification is "enabling for a nucleic acid comprising the nucleotide sequence of SEQ ID NO: 9," and Applicants acknowledge that the PTO has therefore not rejected Claims 11-13 as lacking enablement. Office Action at 2. Given that a nucleic acid which lacks utility cannot be enabled, Applicants conclude that for the nucleic acids of Claims 11-13, the PTO has accepted Applicants' asserted utility of diagnostic tools for cancer, particularly lung cancer.

According to the PTO, while the specification is enabling for a nucleic acid comprising the nucleotide sequence of SEQ ID NO: 9, it does not reasonably provide enablement for nucleic acid molecules having a recited % identity to the genus of all nucleic acid molecules encoding the amino acid sequence of SEQ ID NO: 10, for the genus of all nucleic acid molecules encoding the amino acid sequence of SEQ ID NO: 10, for nucleic acid molecules having a recited % identity to SEQ ID NO: 9 without regard to the functional activity of such nucleic acid molecules, or for nucleic acid molecules that hybridize to SEQ ID NO: 9 without regard to the functional activity of such nucleic acid molecules. Office Action at 2-3. The PTO concludes that the specification does not enable any person skilled in the art to which it pertains, or with which it is most nearly connected, to use the invention commensurate in scope with these claims.

Applicants respectfully disagree.

PTO has Initial Burden to Establish a Reasonable Basis to Question the Enablement Provided

In order to make an enablement rejection, the PTO has the initial burden to establish a reasonable basis to question the enablement provided for the claimed invention. *See* M.P.E.P. § 2164.04 (8th ed. May 2004). A specification teaching how to make and use the claimed subject matter must be taken as being in compliance with the enablement requirement unless there is a reason to doubt the objective truth of the statements contained therein which are relied on for enabling support. *Id.* It is incumbent for the PTO "to explain why it doubts the truth or accuracy of any statement in a supporting disclosure and to back up assertions of its own with acceptable evidence or reasoning which is inconsistent with the contested statement." *Id.* (quoting *In re Marzocchi*, 439 F.2d 220, 224, 169 U.S.P.Q. 367, 370 (CCPA 1971). This can be done "by making specific findings of fact, supported by the evidence, and then drawing conclusions based on these findings of fact." *Id.*

Determination of Enablement Based on Evidence as a Whole

Once the examiner has weighed all the evidence and established a reasonable basis to question the enablement provided for the claimed invention, the burden falls on the applicant to present persuasive arguments, supported by suitable proofs where necessary, that one skilled in the art would be able to make and use the claimed invention using the application as a guide. *See* M.P.E.P. § 2164.05 (8th ed. May 2004). "The evidence provided by applicant **need not be conclusive but merely convincing** to one skilled in the art." *Id.* (bold emphasis added, underline in original). "A declaration or affidavit is, itself, evidence that must be considered." *Id.* (emphasis in original).

The examiner must then "weigh all the evidence before him or her, including the specification and any new evidence supplied by applicant with evidence and/or sound scientific reasoning previously presented in the rejection and decide whether the claimed invention is enabled." *Id.* "The examiner should **never** make the determination based on personal opinion. The determination should always be based on the weight of all the evidence." *Id.* (emphasis in original).

Summary of Applicants' Arguments and the PTO's Response

In an attempt to clarify Applicants' argument, Applicants offer a summary of their argument and the disputed issues involved.

1. Applicants assert they have provided reliable evidence that mRNA for the PRO874 polypeptide is expressed at least two-fold higher in normal lung tissue compared to lung tumor and therefore the claimed nucleic acids are useful and enabled as diagnostic tools; the PTO has apparently acknowledged this utility and enablement in not rejecting Claim 11-13 for lack of enablement;

2. The claimed nucleic acids which are homologous to, or which hybridize to, SEQ ID NO: 9 and the related recited sequences in the claims can be used as hybridization probes for detection of SEQ ID NO: 9, and such use is enabled by the specification;

3. Because the claims have been amended to delete reference to the encoded polypeptide sequence, whether the PRO874 polypeptide is also differentially expressed in lung tumors is not relevant for establishing enablement of the claimed nucleic acids; therefore, the role the PRO874 polypeptide in cancer is irrelevant to enabling the claimed nucleic acids.

Applicants understand the PTO to be making several arguments in response to Applicants' assertion of enablement:

1. The PTO states that the present specification does not provide any information regarding the level of expression, activity, or role in cancer of the PR0874 polypeptide;

2. The PTO asserts that Allman et al. is sufficient to establish that the skilled artisan would have a legitimate basis to question the relative expression of the PR0874 polypeptide in tumors, and the skilled artisan would not know if PR0874 polypeptide expression could, would or should be upregulated, down-regulated, or unchanged in cancer;

3. The PTO argues that it is this additional characterization of the PR0874 polypeptide and validation of its association with lung tumors that is required in order to enable the claimed SEQ ID NO: 9 variants, degenerate and degenerate variant polynucleotides encoding SEQ ID NO: 10 and SEQ ID NO: 10 variants, that constitutes undue experimentation.

As detailed below, Applicants submit that the PTO has failed to meet its initial burden to offer evidence establish a reasonable basis to question the enablement provided for the claimed invention. The only evidence the PTO has offered to support its argument that there is a lack of enablement is the article by Allman *et al.* The PTO's arguments rest entirely on an asserted lack

of information in the specification regarding the expression, activity, or role in cancer of the PR0874 polypeptide. Applicants submit that given the well-established correlation between a change in the level of mRNA with a corresponding change in the levels of the encoded protein, the PRO874 protein is likely differentially expressed in lung tumors. However, enablement of the pending claims does not rely on whether the encoded polypeptide is overexpressed, and as such whether PR0874 polypeptide expression "could, would or should be upregulated, down-regulated, or unchanged in cancer" is not presently an issue.

Applicants have established that the Gene Encoding the PRO874 Polypeptide is Differentially Expressed in Certain Cancers compared to Normal Tissue and is Useful and Enabled as a Diagnostic Tool

Applicants submit that the gene expression data provided in Example 18 of the present application are sufficient to enable use of the claimed nucleic acids as diagnostic tools, as described in the specification, for example, at paragraphs [0336] and [0530].

The gene expression data in the specification, Example 18, shows that the PRO874 mRNA was more highly expressed in normal lung tissue compared to lung tumor tissue, respectively. Gene expression was analyzed using standard semi-quantitative PCR amplification reactions of cDNA libraries isolated from different human tumor and normal human tissue samples. Identification of the differential expression of the PRO874 gene in lung tumor tissue compared to the corresponding normal tissue renders the molecule useful as a diagnostic tool for the determination of the presence or absence of tumor.

Applicants previously submitted as Exhibit 1 a first Declaration of J. Christopher Grimaldi, an expert in the field of cancer biology. This declaration explains the importance of the data in Example 18, and how differential gene and protein expression studies are used to differentiate between normal and tumor tissue (see Declaration, paragraph 7).

In paragraphs 6 and 7, Mr. Grimaldi explains that the semi-quantitative analysis employed to generate the data of Example 18 is sufficient to determine if a gene is over- or under-expressed in tumor cells compared to corresponding normal tissue. He states that the results of the gene expression studies indicate that the genes of interest "can be used to differentiate tumor from normal." He explains that "[t]he precise levels of gene expression are irrelevant; what matters is that there is a relative difference in expression between normal tissue

and tumor tissue.... If a difference is detected, this indicates that the gene... [is] useful for diagnostic purposes, to screen samples to differentiate between normal and tumor." Paragraph 7.

As amended, the pending claims are to nucleic acids that have at least 95% or 99% nucleic acid sequence identity to the recited sequences and are "more highly expressed in normal lung tissue compared to lung tumor" or "hybridizes to the complement of a nucleic acid of SEQ ID NO:9" under the specified stringent conditions. Other claimed nucleic acids are those which hybridize to the recited sequences under stringent conditions. The pending claims are not defined by the polypeptide sequence they encode.

Applicants submit that the claimed nucleic acids are enabled, as one of skill in the art would know how to make and use them. It is well-established in the art how to make the claimed nucleic acids which have at least 95% or 99% sequence identity to the disclosed sequences related to SEQ ID NO:9. Likewise, Applicants have disclosed how to determine if the claimed nucleic acids are differentially expressed in lung tumors compared to their normal counterparts (*see, e.g.,* Example 18 beginning at paragraph [0529] of the specification). Finally, it is well-known in the art how to determine if a nucleic acid hybridizes to the disclosed sequences under the specified stringent conditions. Thus, one of skill in the art would know how to make the claimed nucleic acids.

Applicants submit that Example 18 and the first Grimaldi declaration establish that the PRO874 gene is differentially expressed in lung tumors. Given the disclosure in the specification and the level of skill in the art, a skilled artisan would know how to use the claimed nucleic acids as diagnostic tools. For example, nucleic acids which have at least 95% or 99% sequence identity to the disclosed sequences and are "more highly expressed in normal lung tissue compared to lung tumor" can be used as diagnostic tools since the claimed nucleic acids are themselves differentially expressed in certain tumors. A claimed nucleic acid which has at least 95% or 99% sequence identity to the disclosed sequences and "hybridizes to the complement of a nucleic acid of SEQ ID NO: 9," or which hybridizes to the disclosed sequences under the specified stringent conditions can be used as a hybridization probe to detect the expression of the PRO874 gene, making it useful as a diagnostic tool.

The PTO has stated that the first Grimaldi declaration is insufficient to overcome the rejection of Claims 1-7, 9, 14, and 17-20. The PTO argues that "the specification provides no information regarding the level of expression; activity, or role in cancer of the PR0874

polypeptide. Further, differential tissue nucleic acid expression is not always correlated with protein levels," citing Allman *et al.* for support. Office Action at 3-4 (emphasis added). The PTO goes on to argue that:

> Furthermore, all polynucleotides and their corresponding polypeptides from a particular tumor sample can invariably be classified as either more highly expressed, less expressed, not expressed, or expression unchanged as compared to some standard level of expression. It can then be asserted that any polynucleotide and its corresponding polypeptide that is expressed in this manner can be used to detect or characterize the tumor. Office Action at 4 (emphasis added).

Applicants submit that this mischaracterizes Applicants' asserted utility and enablement for the claimed nucleic acids. Applicants have not asserted that a polynucleotide which is not expressed or whose expression is unchanged can be used to detect tumors. Instead, Applicants have asserted that polynucleotides whose expression has been shown to be increased or decreased in tumors compared to the corresponding normal tissue are useful as diagnostic tools for cancer. The first Grimaldi declaration makes this clear: "[t]he precise levels of gene expression are irrelevant; what matters is that there is a relative difference in expression between normal tissue and tumor tissue.... If a difference is detected, this indicates that the gene... [is] useful for diagnostic purposes, to screen samples to differentiate between normal and tumor." Paragraph 7 (emphasis added). Thus, the PTO's rejection of the first Grimaldi declaration is based on a mischaracterization of Applicants' assertion of utility and enablement.

In rejecting the first Grimaldi declaration, the PTO also states that "the present specification does not provide any information regarding the level of expression, activity, or role in cancer of the PR0874 polypeptide." Office Action at 4 (emphasis added). Based on Allman, the PTO argues that "[t]he skilled artisan would not know if PR0874 polypeptide expression could, would or should be upregulated, down-regulated, or unchanged in cancer." *Id.* (emphasis added). The PTO states that it is this additional characterization of the PR0874 polypeptide and validation of its association with lung tumors that is required in order to enable the rejected subject matter.

As discussed below, Applicants believe that they have established for the record that it is more likely than not that one of skill in the art would accept that changes in mRNA lead to corresponding changes in the encoded polypeptide. However, as discussed above, because the claims have been amended to delete reference to the encoded polypeptide sequence, whether the

PRO874 polypeptide is also differentially expressed in lung tumors is not relevant for establishing enablement of the presently claimed nucleic acids. Therefore, the role of the PRO874 polypeptide in cancer is irrelevant to enabling the claimed nucleic acids. No additional characterization of the PRO874 polypeptide or how it is related to cancer is required to use the claimed nucleic acids to distinguish tumor cells from their normal tissue counterparts.

In conclusion, Applicants submit that they have enabled the presently claimed nucleic acids. The PTO has the initial burden to establish a reasonable basis to question the enablement provided for the claimed invention. *See* M.P.E.P. § 2164.04 (8th ed. May 2004). The PTO's arguments rest on a mischaracterization of Applicants' position and an asserted lack of information regarding the expression of the PRO874 polypeptide, a subject which is not relevant to the claimed nucleic acids. Therefore, the PTO has failed to satisfy its burden "to explain why it doubts the truth or accuracy of any statement in a supporting disclosure and to back up assertions of its own with acceptable evidence or reasoning which is inconsistent with the contested statement." *Id.* (quoting *In re Marzocchi*, 439 F.2d 220, 224, 169 U.S.P.Q. 367, 370 (CCPA 1971). Considering the evidence as a whole, Applicants submit that the claimed nucleic acids are enabled.

Applicants have established that the Accepted Understanding in the Art is that there is a Positive Correlation between mRNA Levels and the Level of Expression of the Encoded Protein

The PTO cites Allman *et al.* as support for the assertion that "differential tissue nucleic acid expression is not always correlated with protein levels." Office Action at 3-4 (emphasis added). Because the claims have been amended such that the claimed nucleic acids are not defined by the sequence of the polypeptide they encode, the question of whether there is a correlation between changes in gene expression and changes in protein expression is not presently at issue. Thus, the Allman reference is not relevant. However, even if this issue were important for the utility of the claimed nucleic acids, as explained previously Allman does not support the PTO's position.

The PTO focuses on the finding reported by Allman *et al.* that germinal center B cells express dramatically more BCL-6 protein than resting B cells, despite similar BCL-6 mRNA levels in the two cell populations. Office Action at 7. The PTO concludes that therefore, the

[higher] expression of SEQ ID NO: 9 in normal lung compared to lung tumor does not provide a readily apparent use for the PRO polypeptide.

The standard for establishing a use for a claimed invention is not absolute certainty, and thus a *necessary* correlation between mRNA levels and protein levels is not required.

> [T]he applicant does not have to provide evidence sufficient to establish that an asserted utility is true "beyond a reasonable doubt." Nor must the applicant provide evidence such that it establishes an asserted utility as a matter of statistical certainty. Instead, evidence will be sufficient if, considered as a whole, it leads a person of ordinary skill in the art to conclude that the asserted utility is more likely than not true. M.P.E.P. at § 2107.02, part VII (2004) (emphasis in original, internal citations omitted).

As detailed below, Applicants assert that it is well-established in the art that in general, the level of protein is positively correlated to the level of mRNA. In spite of the fact that Allman *et al.* report a single contrary example, the cited reference actually supports Applicants' assertion.

In the discussion of their finding that mRNA and protein levels were not correlated, Allman *et al.* refer to the discovery as a "striking dichotomy." Allman *et al.* at 5265, second column, last paragraph. They also state that "an *unanticipated* finding was that the higher BCL-6 protein levels...could not be fully accounted for by increased mRNA expression." Allman *et al.* at 5267, column 1, carryover paragraph (emphasis added). Both of these statements indicate that normally, protein expression is correlated to mRNA levels, and their findings to the contrary were unexpected for that reason.

As stated above, the standard for utility is not absolute certainty, but rather whether one of skill in the art would be more likely than not to believe the asserted use. Thus, one contrary example does not establish that one of skill in the art would find it is more likely than not, that in general, there is no correlation between protein level and mRNA levels. As the discussion in Allman indicates, the working hypothesis among those skilled in the art is that there is a direct correlation between protein levels and mRNA levels.

In support of the assertion that changes in mRNA are positively correlated to changes in protein levels, Applicants previously submitted a copy of a second Declaration by J. Christopher Grimaldi, an expert in the field of cancer biology (previously attached as Exhibit 2). As stated in paragraph 5 of the declaration, "Those who work in this field are well aware that in the vast majority of cases, when a gene is over-expressed...the gene product or polypeptide will also be over-expressed.... This same principal applies to gene under-expression." Further, "the

detection of increased mRNA expression is expected to result in increased polypeptide expression, and the detection of decreased mRNA expression is expected to result in decreased polypeptide expression. The detection of increased or decreased polypeptide expression can be used for cancer diagnosis and treatment." The references cited in the declaration and submitted herewith support this statement.

Applicants also previously submitted a copy of the declaration of Paul Polakis, Ph.D. (previously attached as Exhibit 3), an expert in the field of cancer biology. As stated in paragraph 6 of his declaration:

> Based on my own experience accumulated in more than 20 years of research, including the data discussed in paragraphs 4 and 5 above [showing a positive correlation between mRNA levels and encoded protein levels in the vast majority of cases] and my knowledge of the relevant scientific literature, it is my considered scientific opinion that for human genes, an increased level of mRNA in a tumor cell relative to a normal cell typically correlates to a similar increase in abundance of the encoded protein in the tumor cell relative to the normal cell. In fact, *it remains a central dogma in molecular biology that increased mRNA levels are predictive of corresponding increased levels of the encoded protein.* (Emphasis added).

Dr. Polakis acknowledges that there are published cases where such a correlation does not exist, but states that it is his opinion, based on over 20 years of scientific research, that "such reports are exceptions to the commonly understood general rule that increased mRNA levels are predictive of corresponding increased levels of the encoded protein." (Polakis Declaration, paragraph 6).

The statements of Grimaldi and Polakis are supported by the teachings in Molecular Biology of the Cell, a leading textbook in the field (Bruce Alberts, *et al.*, Molecular Biology of the Cell (3rd ed. 1994) (submitted herewith as Exhibit 1) and (4th ed. 2002) (submitted herewith as Exhibit 2)). Figure 9-2 of Exhibit 1 shows the steps at which eukaryotic gene expression can be controlled. The first step depicted is transcriptional control. Exhibit 1 provides that "[f]or most genes transcriptional controls are paramount. This makes sense because, of all the possible control points illustrated in Figure 9-2, only transcriptional control ensures that no superfluous intermediates are synthesized." Exhibit 1 at 403 (emphasis added). In addition, the text states that "Although controls on the initiation of gene transcription are the predominant form of regulation for most genes, other controls can act later in the pathway from RNA to protein to modulate the amount of gene product that is made." Exhibit 1 at 453 (emphasis added). Thus, as

established in Exhibit 1, the predominant mechanism for regulating the amount of protein produced is by regulating transcription initiation.

In Exhibit 2, Figure 6-3 on page 302 illustrates the basic principle that there is a correlation between increased gene expression and increased protein expression. The accompanying text states that "a cell can change (or regulate) the expression of each of its genes according to the needs of the moment – *most obviously by controlling the production of its mRNA*." Exhibit 2 at 302 (emphasis added). Similarly, Figure 6-90 on page 364 of Exhibit 2 illustrates the path from gene to protein. The accompanying text states that while potentially each step can be regulated by the cell, "the initiation of transcription is the most common point for a cell to regulate the expression of each of its genes." Exhibit 2 at 364 (emphasis added). This point is repeated on page 379, where the authors state that of all the possible points for regulating protein expression, "[f]or most genes transcriptional controls are paramount." Exhibit 2 at 379 (emphasis added).

Further support for Applicants' position can be found in the textbook, Genes VI, (Benjamin Lewin, Genes VI (1997)) (submitted herewith as Exhibit 3) which states "having acknowledged that control of gene expression can occur at multiple stages, and that production of RNA cannot inevitably be equated with production of protein, it is clear that the overwhelming majority of regulatory events occur at the initiation of transcription." *Genes VI* at 847-848 (emphasis added).

Additional support is also found in Zhigang *et al.*, World Journal of Surgical Oncology 2:13, 2004, submitted herewith as Exhibit 4. Zhigang studied the expression of prostate stem cell antigen (PSCA) protein and mRNA to validate it as a potential molecular target for diagnosis and treatment of human prostate cancer. The data showed "a high degree of correlation between PSCA protein and mRNA expression" Exhibit 4 at 4. Of the samples tested, 81 out of 87 showed a high degree of correlation between mRNA expression and protein expression. The authors conclude that "it is demonstrated that PSCA protein and mRNA overexpressed in human prostate cancer, and that the increased protein level of PSCA was resulted from the upregulated transcription of its mRNA." Exhibit 4 at 6. Even though the correlation between mRNA expression and protein expression occurred in 93% of the samples tested, not 100%, the authors state that "PSCA may be a promising molecular marker for the clinical prognosis of human Pca and a valuable target for diagnosis and therapy of this tumor." Exhibit 4 at 7.

Further, Meric *et al.*, Molecular Cancer Therapeutics, vol. 1, 971-979 (2002), submitted herewith as Exhibit 5, states the following:

> The **fundamental principle** of molecular therapeutics in cancer is to exploit the differences in gene expression between cancer cells and normal cells...[M]ost efforts have concentrated on identifying differences in gene expression at the level of mRNA, which can be attributable to either DNA amplification or to differences in transcription. Meric *et al.* at 971 (emphasis added).

Those of skill in the art would not be focusing on differences in gene expression between cancer cells and normal cells if there were no correlation between gene expression and protein expression.

Together, the declarations of Grimaldi and Polakis, the accompanying references, and the excerpts and references provided above all establish that the accepted understanding in the art is that there is a reasonable correlation between changes in gene expression and the level of the encoded protein.

One of skill in the art would recognize that a protein which is differentially expressed in certain cancer cells compared to the corresponding normal tissue could be uses as a diagnostic tool, for example, to generate antibodies. It follows that a nucleic acid which encodes a polypeptide that has use as a diagnostic tool, would likewise have such a use. Thus, Applicants submit that they have established that it is more likely than not that one of skill in the art would know how to use the PRO874 polypeptide, and the nucleic acids which encode it, as a cancer diagnostic tool.

In rejecting the second Grimaldi declaration, the Polakis declaration, and the excerpts from Molecular Biology of the Cell, 4th ed., the PTO repeats the same arguments discussed above. Specifically, the PTO asserts that: "the present specification does not provide any information regarding the level of expression, activity, or role in cancer of the PR0874 polypeptide" (Office Action at 6, 8 and 9); that "The examiner has cited countervailing evidence to show that the skilled artisan would have a legitimate basis to question the relative expression of the PR0874 polypeptide in tumors" (Office Action at 6 and 8); and that "The skilled artisan would not know if PR0874 polypeptide expression could, would or should be upregulated, down-regulated, or unchanged in cancer" (Office Action at 6, 8, and 9).

Applicants remind the PTO that the examiner must "weigh all the evidence before him or her, including the specification and any new evidence supplied by applicant with evidence and/or

sound scientific reasoning previously presented in the rejection and decide whether the claimed invention is enabled." M.P.E.P. § 2164.05 (8th ed. May 2004) "The examiner should **never** make the determination based on personal opinion. The determination should always be based on the weight of all the evidence." *Id.* (emphasis in original).

Accordingly, considering all the evidence, Applicants submit that they have offered sufficient evidence for the record to convince one of skill in the art that because the PRO874 mRNA is more highly expressed in normal lung tissue compared to lung tumor, the PRO874 polypeptide will also be more highly expressed in normal lung tissue compared to lung tumor, respectively. However, this issue does not need to be resolved to enable the presently pending claims.

Conclusion

Applicants assert they have provided reliable evidence that the PRO874 mRNA is expressed at least two-fold higher in normal lung tissue compared to lung tumor and therefore the claimed nucleic acids are useful and enabled as diagnostic tools. The PTO has apparently acknowledged this utility and enablement as Claim 11-13 are not rejected as lacking enablement. Applicants submit that like the nucleic acids of Claim 11-13, the nucleic acids of the remaining claims are also enabled as they can also be used as diagnostic tools for cancer. Because the claims have been amended to delete reference to the encoded polypeptide sequence, whether the PRO874 polypeptide is differentially expressed in lung tumors is not relevant for establishing enablement of the claimed nucleic acids. Likewise, the role of the PRO874 polypeptide in cancer is not relevant to enabling the claimed nucleic acids.

Applicants submit that the PTO has failed to meet its initial burden of establishing a reasonable basis to question the enablement provided for the claimed invention. It is incumbent for the PTO "to explain why it doubts the truth or accuracy of any statement in a supporting disclosure and to back up assertions of its own with acceptable evidence or reasoning which is inconsistent with the contested statement." M.P.E.P. § 2164.04 (8th ed. May 2004) (quoting *In re Marzocchi*, 439 F.2d 220, 224, 169 U.S.P.Q. 367, 370 (CCPA 1971). The only evidence the PTO has offered to support its argument that there is a lack of enablement is the Allman *et al.* reference. The PTO's arguments for lack of enablement rest entirely on an asserted lack of information in the specification regarding the expression, activity, or role in cancer of the

PR0874 polypeptide. This argument does not provide a reason to question the enablement of the presently pending claims which do not depend on expression of the PRO874 polypeptide for enablement.

Given the totality of the evidence, Applicants submit that the claims are enabled, and respectfully request that the PTO reconsider and withdraw the enablement rejection under 35 U.S.C. § 112, first paragraph.

Rejection under 35 U.S.C. §112, first paragraph – Written Description

The PTO has rejected Claims 1-7, 9, 14 and 17-20 under 35 U.S.C. §112, first paragraph, as containing subject matter which was not described in the specification in such a way as to reasonably convey to one skilled in the art that the inventors, at the time the application was filed, had possession of the invention.

The Legal Standard for Written Description

The well-established test for sufficiency of support under the written description requirement of 35 U.S.C. §112 , first paragraph is whether the disclosure "reasonably conveys to artisan that the inventor had possession at that time of the later claimed subject matter." *In re Kaslow*, 707 F.2d 1366, 1375, 2121 U.S.P.Q. 1089, 1096 (Fed. Cir. 1983); *see also Vas-Cath, Inc. v. Mahurkar*, 935 F.2d at 1563, 19 U.S.P.Q.2d at 1116 (Fed. Cir. 1991). The adequacy of written description support is a factual issue and is to be determined on a case-by-case basis. *See e.g., Vas-Cath, Inc. v. Mahurkar*, 935 F.2d at 1563, 19 U.S.P.Q.2d at 1116 (Fed. Cir. 1991). The factual determination in a written description analysis depends on the nature of the invention and the amount of knowledge imparted to those skilled in the art by the disclosure. *Union Oil v. Atlantic Richfield Co.*, 208 F.3d 989, 996 (Fed. Cir. 2000).

The Current Invention is Adequately Described

As noted above, whether the Applicants were in possession of the invention as of the effective filing date of an application is a factual determination, reached by the consideration of a number of factors, including the level of knowledge and skill in the art, and the teaching provided by the specification. The inventor is not required to describe every single detail of his/her invention. An Applicant's disclosure obligation varies according to the art to which the

invention pertains. The present invention pertains to the field of recombinant DNA/protein technology. It is well-established that the level of skill in this field is very high since a representative person of skill is generally a Ph.D. scientist with several years of experience. Accordingly, the teaching imparted in the specification must be evaluated through the eyes of a highly skilled artisan as of the date the invention was made.

The subject matter of the pending claims concerns nucleic acids having 95% or 99% sequence identity to the nucleic acid sequence of SEQ ID NO:9, nucleotides 100-966 of the nucleic acid sequence of SEQ ID NO:9, or nucleotides 100-966 of the cDNA deposited under ATCC accession number 209922, with the functional recitation as amended: "wherein said nucleic acid is more highly expressed in normal lung tissue compared to lung tumor." Other claimed nucleic acids hybridize to the nucleic acid sequence of SEQ ID NO:9, nucleotides 100-966 of the nucleic acid sequence of SEQ ID NO:9, nucleotides 100-966 of the cDNA deposited under ATCC accession number 209922, or the complements thereof, under the specified stringent conditions. As Applicants have noted above, the claims have been amended to delete reference to the encoded polypeptide sequence.

We turn first to the claims which recite specific high stringency hybridization conditions. In *Enzo Biochem v. Gen-Probe Inc.*, 323 F.3d 956 (Fed. Cir. 2002), the Court held that functional descriptions of genetic material may satisfy the written description requirement. In so holding, the Court gave judicial notice to the USPTO's Manual of Patent Examining Procedure, which provides that the written description requirement may be satisfied when the disclosure provides sufficiently detailed identifying characteristics, such as "complete or partial structure, other physical and/or chemical properties, *functional characteristics when coupled with a known or disclosed correlation between function and structure*, or some combination of such characteristics." *Id.* at 964, quoting 66 Fed. Reg. at 1106 (emphasis in original). In *Enzo*, the Court found describing nucleic acids based on their ability to hybridize to another nucleic acid sequence which was adequately described may be an adequate description of the nucleic acid. This is because the hybridization function of a nucleic acid is dependent on the sequences of the nucleic acid – a disclosed function which is coupled with a known correlation between function and structure. The Court favorably discussed the PTO's example wherein "genus claims to nucleic acids based on their hybridization properties...may be adequately described if they hybridize under highly stringent conditions to known sequences because such conditions dictate

that all species within the genus will be structurally similar." *Id.* at 967 (citing *Application of [Written Description] Guidelines*, Example 9) (emphasis added).

Applicants submit that the stringent hybridization conditions specified in the pending claims, alone or in combination with the recited percent sequence identity, result in all species within the genus being structurally similar. As the *Enzo* Court noted, Examples 9 and 10 of the Application of Written Description Guidelines (hereinafter "Guidelines") make clear that specifying hybridization under highly stringent conditions yields "structurally similar DNAs." Guidelines, Example 9 at page 36. The analysis of a genus claim in Example 10 of the Guidelines states:

> [T]urning to the genus analysis, the art indicates that *there is no substantial variation within the [claimed] genus because of the stringency of hybridization conditions which yields structurally similar molecules.* The single disclosed species is representative of the genus because reduction to practice of this species, considered along with the defined hybridization conditions and the level of skill and knowledge in the art, are sufficient to allow the skilled artisan to recognize that applicant was in possession of the necessary common attributes or features of the elements possessed by the members of the genus. Guidelines, Example 10 at page 39 (emphasis added).

Given the level of skill in the art, specifying highly stringent conditions leads to "no substantial variation within the [claimed] genus," and therefore a skilled artisan would recognize that the Applicants were in possession of the necessary common attributes or features of the genus. The common element or attribute of the claimed genus of nucleic acids is that species of the genus contain a nucleic acid which is structurally related to SEQ ID NO: 9, such that the nucleic acids hybridize to SEQ ID NO: 9 or the related sequences under the specified high stringency conditions recited in the claims.

The present situation is not analogous to *Fiddes v. Baird*, 30 U.S.P.Q. 2d 1481, previously cited by the PTO. Unlike *Fiddes*, where arguably the structure of other mammalian sequences could not be conceived based on a single species of the genus, here the skill in the art is such that the sequence of nucleic acids which hybridize to SEQ ID NO: 9 under the conditions specified can be conceived. Here, the claimed genus is defined by its structure – members of the genus hybridize under the specified conditions to the specified sequences, each of which are adequately described in the specification.

Applicants submit that the pending claims relating to nucleic acids having 95% or 99% sequence identity to the nucleic acids related to SEQ ID NO:9 with the functional recitation "wherein said nucleic acid is more highly expressed in normal lung tissue compared to lung tumor" are also adequately described. In Example 14 of the written description training materials, the written description requirement was found to be satisfied for claims relating to polypeptides having 95% homology to a particular sequence and possessing a particular catalytic activity, even though the applicant had not made any variants. Similarly, the pending claims also have very high sequence homology to the disclosed sequences and must share the same expression pattern in certain tumors. In Example 14, the procedures for making variants were known in the art and the disclosure taught how to test for the claimed catalytic activity. Similarly, in the instant application, it is well known in the art how to make nucleic acids which have at least 95% sequence identity to the disclosed sequences, and the specification discloses how to test to determine if the nucleic acid sequence is differentially expressed in lung tumors. Like Example 14, the genus of nucleic acids that have at least 95% or 99% sequence identity to the disclosed sequences will not have substantial variation since all of the variants must have the same expression in certain tumors.

The PTO has argued that Applicants have not made any variant polynucleotides. While Applicants appreciate that actions taken by the PTO in other applications are not binding with respect to the examination of the present application, Applicants note that the PTO has issued many patents containing claims to variant nucleic acids or variant proteins where the applicants did not actually make such nucleic acids or proteins. Representative patents include U.S. Patent No. 6,737,522, U.S. Patent No. 6,395,306, U.S. Patent No. 6,025,156, U.S. Patent No. 6,645,499, U.S. Patent No. 6,498,235, and U.S. Patent No. 6,730,502, which are submitted herewith as Exhibits 6-11.

In conclusion, Applicants submit that they have satisfied the written description requirement for the pending claims based on the actual reduction to practice of SEQ ID NO:9, by specifying the high stringency conditions under which hybridization occurs, and by describing the gene expression assay, all of which result in a lack of substantial variability in the species falling within the scope of the instant claims. Applicants submit that this disclosure would allow one of skill in the art to "recognize that the applicant was in possession of the necessary common attributes or features of the elements possessed by the members of the genus." Hence,

Applicants respectfully request that the PTO reconsider and withdraw the written description rejection under 35 U.S.C. §112.

Rejections under 35 U.S.C. § 112, first paragraph – Written Description, New Matter

The PTO has rejected Claims 1-7, 9, 11-14, 17-20 under 35 U.S.C. § 112, first paragraph, as failing to comply with the written description requirement. The PTO argues that there is no written support for the limitation "amino acids 34-321 of SEQ ID NO: 10" and "said extracellular domain is amino acids 81-109 or 232-253 of SEQ ID NO: 10."

The claims have been amended to delete reference to either of these phrases. However, the phrase "nucleotides 100-966 of" SEQ ID NO: 9 or the cDNA deposited under ATCC accession number 209922, has been added to the claims.

M.P.E.P. §2163.02 states that when determining compliance with the written description requirement, "the fundamental factual inquiry is whether the specification conveys with reasonable clarity to those skilled in the art that, as of the filing date sought, applicant was in possession of the invention as now claimed." M.P.E.P. §2163.02 (internal citations omitted, emphasis added). In addition, M.P.E.P. §2163.04 states that a description as filed "is presumed to be adequate, unless or until sufficient evidence or reasoning to the contrary has been presented by the examiner to rebut the presumption." Therefore, "the examiner has the initial burden of presenting by a preponderance of evidence why a person skilled in the art would not recognize in an applicant's disclosure a description of the invention defined by the claims." M.P.E.P. §2163.04 (internal citations omitted, emphasis added).

Paragraph [0196] of the specification states that "it is conceivable and possible that other methionine residues located either upstream or downstream from the amino acid position 1 in the figures may be employed as the starting amino acid residue for the PRO polypeptides." Specification at paragraph [0196] (emphasis added). Figure 10 and SEQ ID NO:10 show 8 methionine residues in the sequence. Combining the statement in paragraph [0196] with the disclosure of SEQ ID NO:10, Applicants have conveyed with reasonable clarity to those skilled in the art that, as of the filing date sought, Applicants were in possession of polypeptides of SEQ ID NO:10 beginning at any of the methionine residues listed in SEQ ID NO:10. One of the these polypeptides is the one which begins with the methionine at residue #34.

Applicants have also described in Figure 9, SEQ ID NO:9 and the cDNA deposited under ATCC accession number 209922, a cDNA sequence which encodes the entirety of the polypeptide of SEQ ID NO:10. As such, SEQ ID NO:9 inherently discloses the coding sequence of the polypeptides of SEQ ID NO:10 which start at any of the eight methionine residues, including the polypeptide which begins at methionine #34. One of skill in the art would clearly recognize that methionine #34 is encoded by the codon beginning at nucleotide 100 of SEQ ID NO:9, and that the stop codon ends at nucleotide 966. Therefore, the polypeptide of SEQ ID NO:10 which begins at residue #34 is encoded by nucleotides 100-966 of SEQ ID NO:9 and cDNA deposited under ATCC accession number 209922. Applicants were clearly in possession of this claimed subject matter at the time of filing.

The PTO acknowledges that paragraph [0196] discloses that methionine residues upstream or downstream of the amino acid in position 1 may be the start amino acid. However, the PTO appears to argue that because there is more than one methionine residue in SEQ ID NO:10, Applicants have not adequately described any of the possible polypeptides of SEQ ID NO:10 beginning at a methionine residue. The PTO states that "the species methionine residue #34 as the starting amino acid is not supported by this generic disclosure because there is no express, implicit, or inherent support for this species to the exclusion of all the other species. In other words, there is no evidence that the disclosure would reasonably lead the skilled artisan to this particular species." Office Action at 16, emphasis added.

Applicants submit that this argument misstates the test for compliance with the written description requirement. The test is "whether the specification conveys with reasonable clarity to those skilled in the art that, as of the filing date sought, applicant was in possession of the invention as now claimed." M.P.E.P. §2163.02 (internal citations omitted, emphasis added). Clearly, as discussed above, at the time of filing Applicants were in possession of the polypeptide of SEQ ID NO:10 starting at methionine #34 and the nucleic acid sequence which encodes this polypeptide. Contrary to the PTO's assertion, where Applicants have adequately described several polypeptides related to SEQ ID NO:10, there is nothing in the written description requirement which prevents the Applicant from claiming only one of them.

Therefore, Applicants submit that the PTO has failed to meet its initial burden of "presenting by a preponderance of evidence why a person skilled in the art would not recognize in an applicant's disclosure a description of the invention defined by the claims."

M.P.E.P.§2163.04 (internal citations omitted, emphasis added). In light of these amendments and arguments, Applicants request that the PTO reconsider and withdraw the written description rejections under 35 U.S.C. §112, first paragraph.

Rejection under 35 U.S.C. §102(e) – Anticipation

The PTO maintains its rejection of Claim 14 as anticipated under 35 U.S.C. § 102(e) by Edwards, U.S. Patent No. 6,312,922. The PTO states that Edwards discloses an isolated nucleic acid molecule (SEQ ID NO: 141) that has a best local similarity of 98.2% to SEQ ID NO: 9. The PTO states that Edwards first disclosed the molecule in U.S. Application No. 60/081,563, which was filed April 13, 1998. The PTO argues Edwards teaches insertion of the cDNA into the BlueScript vector (Example 15, column 21). The PTO states that the BlueScript vector is 2958 bp in length, as evidenced by Stratagene's 1995 catalog (page 334). The PTO concludes that Stratagene's BlueScript vector comprising the cDNA is an isolated nucleic acid molecule that is at least about 1000 nucleotides in length and would hybridize to SEQ ID NO: 9, to the coding sequence of SEQ 10 NO: 9, and to the coding sequence of the deposited clone, in the absence of evidence to the contrary.

As amended herein, Claim 14 recites the limitation "wherein said isolated nucleic acid molecule is suitable for use as a PCR primer or probe." Clearly, a double-stranded BlueScript plasmid with the insert of SEQ ID NO:141 from Edwards would not be suitable as a PCR primer or probe. Therefore, because the Edwards reference does not disclose each and every claim limitation, it does not anticipate Claim 14. Applicants therefore request that the PTO reconsider and withdraw the rejection of Claim 14 under 35 U.S.C. § 102(e).

CONCLUSION

In view of the above, Applicants respectfully maintain that claims are patentable and request that they be passed to issue. Applicants invite the Examiner to call the undersigned if any remaining issues may be resolved by telephone.

Please charge any additional fees, including any fees for additional extension of time, or credit overpayment to Deposit Account No. 11-1410.

Respectfully submitted,

KNOBBE, MARTENS, OLSON & BEAR, LLP

Dated: June 28, 2005

By: _____

AnneMarie Kaiser
Registration No. 37,649
Attorney of Record
Customer No. 30,313
(619) 235-8550

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Bruce Alberts received his Ph.D. from Harvard University and is currently President of the National Academy of Sciences and Professor of Biochemistry and Biophysics at the University of California, San Francisco. *Dennis Bray* received his Ph.D. from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and is currently a Medical Research Council Fellow in the Department of Zoology, University of Cambridge. *Julian Lewis* received his D.Phil. from the University of Oxford and is currently a Senior Scientist in the Imperial Cancer Research Fund Developmental Biology Unit, University of Oxford. *Martin Raff* received his M.D. from McGill University and is currently a Professor in the MRC Laboratory for Molecular Cell Biology and the Biology Department, University College London. *Keith Roberts* received his Ph.D. from the University of Cambridge and is currently Head of the Department of Cell Biology, the John Innes Institute, Norwich. *James D. Watson* received his Ph.D. from Indiana University and is currently Director of the Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory. He is the author of *Molecular Biology of the Gene* and, with Francis Crick and Maurice Wilkins, won the Nobel Prize in Medicine and Physiology in 1962.

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Front cover: The photograph shows a rat nerve cell in culture. It is labeled (*yellow*) with a fluorescent antibody that stains its cell body and dendritic processes. Nerve terminals (*green*) from other neurons (not visible), which have made synapses on the cell, are labeled with a different antibody. (Courtesy of Olaf Mundigl and Pietro de Camilli.)

Dedication page: Gavin Borden, late president of Garland Publishing, weathered in during his mid-1980s climb near Mount McKinley with MBoC author Bruce Alberts and famous mountaineer guide Mugs Stump (1940–1992).

Back cover: The authors, in alphabetical order, crossing Abbey Road in London on their way to lunch. Much of this third edition was written in a house just around the corner. (Photograph by Richard Olivier.)

extracts. If these minor cell proteins differ among cells to the same extent as the more abundant proteins, as is commonly assumed, only a small number of protein differences (perhaps several hundred) suffice to create very large differences in cell morphology and behavior.

A Cell Can Change the Expression of Its Genes in Response to External Signals [3]

Most of the specialized cells in a multicellular organism are capable of altering their patterns of gene expression in response to extracellular cues. If a liver cell is exposed to a glucocorticoid hormone, for example, the production of several specific proteins is dramatically increased. Glucocorticoids are released during periods of starvation or intense exercise and signal the liver to increase the production of glucose from amino acids and other small molecules; the set of proteins whose production is induced includes enzymes such as tyrosine aminotransferase, which helps to convert tyrosine to glucose. When the hormone is no longer present, the production of these proteins drops to its normal level.

Other cell types respond to glucocorticoids in different ways. In fat cells, for example, the production of tyrosine aminotransferase is reduced, while some other cell types do not respond to glucocorticoids at all. These examples illustrate a general feature of cell specialization—different cell types often respond in different ways to the same extracellular signal. Underlying this specialization are features that do not change, which give each cell type its permanently distinctive character. These features reflect the persistent expression of different sets of genes.

Gene Expression Can Be Regulated at Many of the Steps in the Pathway from DNA to RNA to Protein [4]

If differences between the various cell types of an organism depend on the particular genes that the cells express, at what level is the control of gene expression exercised? There are many steps in the pathway leading from DNA to protein, and all of them can in principle be regulated. Thus a cell can control the proteins it makes by (1) controlling when and how often a given gene is transcribed (**transcriptional control**), (2) controlling how the primary RNA transcript is spliced or otherwise processed (**RNA processing control**), (3) selecting which completed mRNAs in the cell nucleus are exported to the cytoplasm (**RNA transport control**), (4) selecting which mRNAs in the cytoplasm are translated by ribosomes (**translational control**), (5) selectively destabilizing certain mRNA molecules in the cytoplasm (**mRNA degradation control**), or (6) selectively activating, inactivating, or compartmentalizing specific protein molecules after they have been made (**protein activity control**) (Figure 9–2).

For most genes transcriptional controls are paramount. This makes sense because, of all the possible control points illustrated in Figure 9–2, only transcriptional control ensures that no superfluous intermediates are synthesized. In the

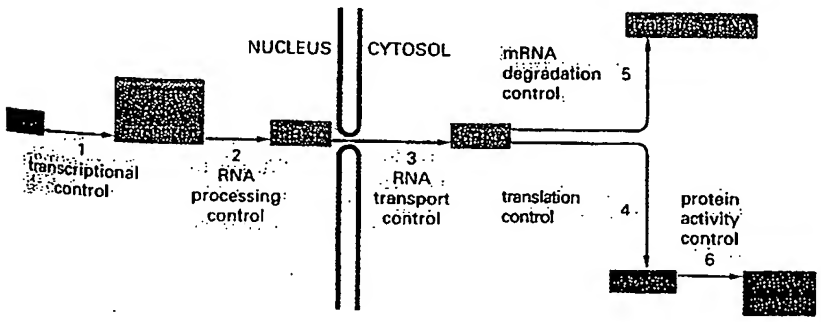

Figure 9–2 Six steps at which eucaryote gene expression can be controlled. Only controls that operate at steps 1 through 5 are discussed in this chapter. The regulation of protein activity (step 6) is discussed in Chapter 5; this includes reversible activation or inactivation by protein phosphorylation as well as irreversible inactivation by proteolytic degradation.

following sections we discuss the DNA and protein components that regulate the initiation of gene transcription. We return at the end of the chapter to the other ways of regulating gene expression.

Summary

The genome of a cell contains in its DNA sequence the information to make many thousands of different protein and RNA molecules. A cell typically expresses only a fraction of its genes, and the different types of cells in multicellular organisms arise because different sets of genes are expressed. Moreover, cells can change the pattern of genes they express in response to changes in their environment, such as signals from other cells. Although all of the steps involved in expressing a gene can in principle be regulated, for most genes the initiation of RNA transcription is the most important point of control.

DNA-binding Motifs in Gene Regulatory Proteins [5]

How does a cell determine which of its thousands of genes to transcribe? As discussed in Chapter 8, the transcription of each gene is controlled by a regulatory region of DNA near the site where transcription begins. Some regulatory regions are simple and act as switches that are thrown by a single signal. Other regulatory regions are complex and act as tiny microprocessors, responding to a variety of signals that they interpret and integrate to switch the neighboring gene on or off. Whether complex or simple, these switching devices consist of two fundamental types of components: (1) short stretches of DNA of defined sequence and (2) *gene regulatory proteins* that recognize and bind to them.

We begin our discussion of gene regulatory proteins by describing how these proteins were discovered.

Gene Regulatory Proteins Were Discovered Using Bacterial Genetics [6]

Genetic analyses in bacteria carried out in the 1950s provided the first evidence of the existence of **gene regulatory proteins** that turn specific sets of genes on or off. One of these regulators, the *lambda repressor*, is encoded by a bacterial virus, *bacteriophage lambda*. The repressor shuts off the viral genes that code for the protein components of new virus particles and thereby enables the viral genome to remain a silent passenger in the bacterial chromosome, multiplying with the bacterium when conditions are favorable for bacterial growth (see Figure 6–80). The lambda repressor was among the first gene regulatory proteins to be characterized, and it remains one of the best understood, as we discuss later. Other bacterial regulators respond to nutritional conditions by shutting off genes encoding specific sets of metabolic enzymes when they are not needed. The *lac repressor*, for example, the first of these bacterial proteins to be recognized, turns off the production of the proteins responsible for lactose metabolism when this sugar is absent from the medium.

The first step toward understanding gene regulation was the isolation of mutant strains of bacteria and bacteriophage lambda that were unable to shut off specific sets of genes. It was proposed at the time, and later proved, that most of these mutants were deficient in proteins acting as specific repressors for these sets of genes. Because these proteins, like most gene regulatory proteins, are present in small quantities, it was difficult and time-consuming to isolate them. They were eventually purified by fractionating cell extracts on a series of standard chromatography columns (see pp. 166–169). Once isolated, the proteins were shown to bind to specific DNA sequences close to the genes that they

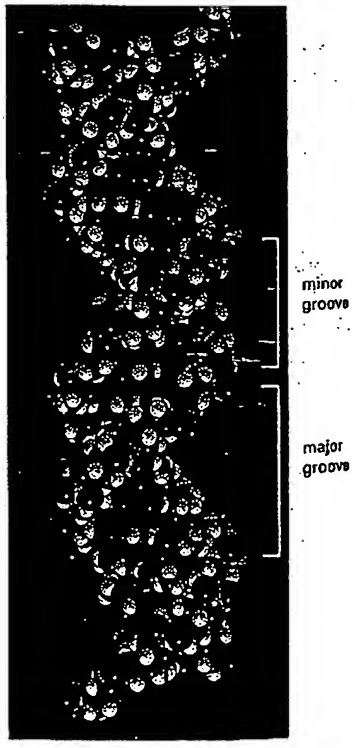

Figure 9–3 Double-helical structure of DNA. The major and minor grooves on the outside of the double helix are indicated. The atoms are colored as follows: carbon, *dark blue;* nitrogen, *light blue;* hydrogen, *white;* oxygen, *red;* phosphorus, *yellow.*

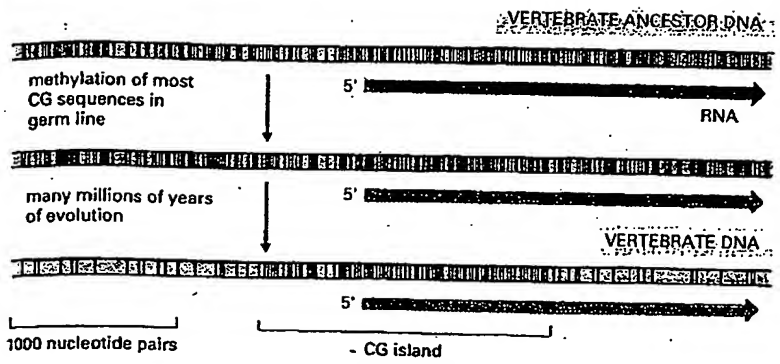

Figure 9–71 A mechanism to explain both the marked deficiency of CG sequences and the presence of CG islands in vertebrate genomes. A *black line* marks the location of an unmethylated CG dinucleotide in the DNA sequence, while a *red line* marks the location of a methylated CG dinucleotide.

Summary

The many types of cells in animals and plants are created largely through mechanisms that cause different genes to be transcribed in different cells. Since many specialized animal cells can maintain their unique character when grown in culture, the gene regulatory mechanisms involved in creating them must be stable once established and heritable when the cell divides, endowing the cell with a memory of its developmental history. Procaryotes and yeasts provide unusually accessible model systems in which to study gene regulatory mechanisms, some of which may be relevant to the creation of specialized cell types in higher eucaryotes. One such mechanism involves a competitive interaction between two (or more) gene regulatory proteins, each of which inhibits the synthesis of the other; this can create a flip-flop switch that switches a cell between two alternative patterns of gene expression. Direct or indirect positive feedback loops, which enable gene regulatory proteins to perpetuate their own synthesis, provide a general mechanism for cell memory.

In eucaryotes gene transcription is generally controlled by combinations of gene regulatory proteins. It is thought that each type of cell in a higher eucaryotic organism contains a specific combination of gene regulatory proteins that ensures the expression of only those genes appropriate to that type of cell. A given gene regulatory protein may be expressed in a variety of circumstances and typically is involved in the regulation of many genes.

In addition to diffusible gene regulatory proteins, inherited states of chromatin condensation are also utilized by eucaryotic cells to regulate gene expression. In vertebrates DNA methylation also plays a part, mainly as a device to reinforce decisions about gene expression that are made initially by other mechanisms.

Posttranscriptional Controls

Although controls on the initiation of gene transcription are the predominant form of regulation for most genes, other controls can act later in the pathway from RNA to protein to modulate the amount of gene product that is made. Although these **posttranscriptional controls,** which operate after RNA polymerase has bound to the gene's promoter and begun RNA synthesis, are less common than *transcriptional control,* for many genes they are crucial. It seems that every step in gene expression that could be controlled in principle is likely to be regulated under some circumstances for some genes.

We consider the varieties of posttranscriptional regulation in temporal order, according to the sequence of events that might be experienced by an RNA molecule after its transcription has begun (Figure 9–72).

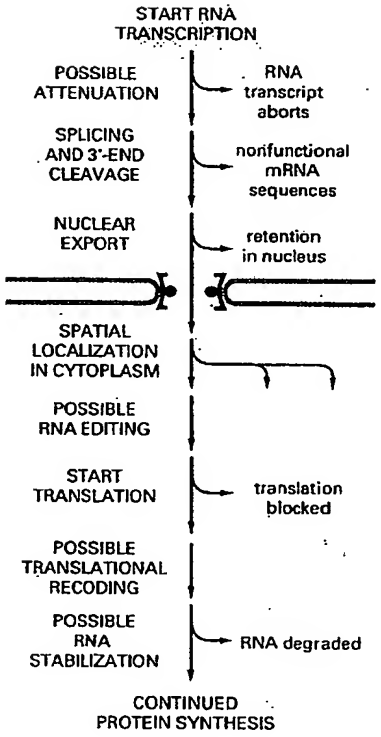

Figure 9–72 Possible post-transcriptional controls on gene expression. Only a few of these controls are likely to be used for any one gene.

MOLECULAR BIOLOGY OF THE CELL

fourth edition

Bruce Alberts

Alexander Johnson

Julian Lewis

Martin Raff

Keith Roberts

Peter Walter

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Bruce Alberts received his Ph.D. from Harvard University and is President of the National Academy of Sciences and Professor of Biochemistry and Biophysics at the University of California, San Francisco. **Alexander Johnson** received his Ph.D. from Harvard University and is a Professor of Microbiology and Immunology at the University of California, San Francisco. **Julian Lewis** received his D.Phil. from the University of Oxford and is a Principal Scientist at the Imperial Cancer Research Fund, London. **Martin Raff** received his M.D. from McGill University and is at the Medical Research Council Laboratory for Molecular Cell Biology and Cell Biology Unit and in the Biology Department at University College London. **Keith Roberts** received his Ph.D. from the University of Cambridge and is Associate Research Director at the John Innes Centre, Norwich. **Peter Walter** received his Ph.D. from The Rockefeller University in New York and is Professor and Chairman of the Department of Biochemistry and Biophysics at the University of California, San Francisco, and an Investigator of the Howard Hughes Medical Institute.

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Front cover Human Genome: Reprinted by permission from *Nature*, International Human Genome Sequencing Consortium, 409:860–921, 2001 © Macmillan Magazines Ltd. Adapted from an image by Francis Collins, NHGRI; Jim Kent, UCSC; Ewan Birney, EBI; and Darryl Leja, NHGRI; showing a portion of Chromosome 1 from the initial sequencing of the human genome.

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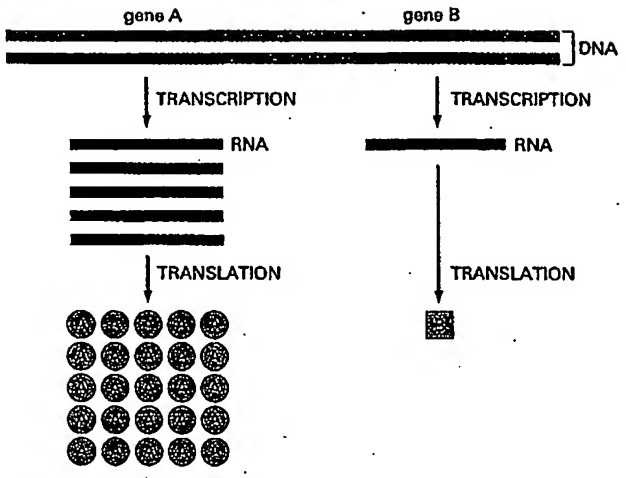

Figure 6–3 Genes can be expressed with different efficiencies. Gene A is transcribed and translated much more efficiently than gene B. This allows the amount of protein A in the cell to be much greater than that of protein B.

FROM DNA TO RNA

Transcription and translation are the means by which cells read out, or express, the genetic instructions in their genes. Because many identical RNA copies can be made from the same gene, and each RNA molecule can direct the synthesis of many identical protein molecules, cells can synthesize a large amount of protein rapidly when necessary. But each gene can also be transcribed and translated with a different efficiency, allowing the cell to make vast quantities of some proteins and tiny quantities of others (Figure 6–3). Moreover, as we see in the next chapter, a cell can change (or regulate) the expression of each of its genes according to the needs of the moment—most obviously by controlling the production of its RNA.

Portions of DNA Sequence Are Transcribed into RNA

The first step a cell takes in reading out a needed part of its genetic instructions is to copy a particular portion of its DNA nucleotide sequence—a gene—into an RNA nucleotide sequence. The information in RNA, although copied into another chemical form, is still written in essentially the same language as it is in DNA—the language of a nucleotide sequence. Hence the name **transcription.**

Like DNA, RNA is a linear polymer made of four different types of nucleotide subunits linked together by phosphodiester bonds (Figure 6–4). It differs from DNA chemically in two respects: (1) the nucleotides in RNA are *ribonucleotides*—that is, they contain the sugar ribose (hence the name *ribo*nucleic acid) rather than deoxyribose; (2) although, like DNA, RNA contains the bases adenine (A), guanine (G), and cytosine (C), it contains the base uracil (U) instead of the thymine (T) in DNA. Since U, like T, can base-pair by hydrogen-bonding with A (Figure 6–5), the complementary base-pairing properties described for DNA in Chapters 4 and 5 apply also to RNA (in RNA, G pairs with C, and A pairs with U). It is not uncommon, however, to find other types of base pairs in RNA: for example, G pairing with U occasionally.

Despite these small chemical differences, DNA and RNA differ quite dramatically in overall structure. Whereas DNA always occurs in cells as a double-stranded helix, RNA is single-stranded. RNA chains therefore fold up into a variety of shapes, just as a polypeptide chain folds up to form the final shape of a protein (Figure 6–6). As we see later in this chapter, the ability to fold into complex three-dimensional shapes allows some RNA molecules to have structural and catalytic functions.

Transcription Produces RNA Complementary to One Strand of DNA

All of the RNA in a cell is made by DNA transcription, a process that has certain similarities to the process of DNA replication discussed in Chapter 5.

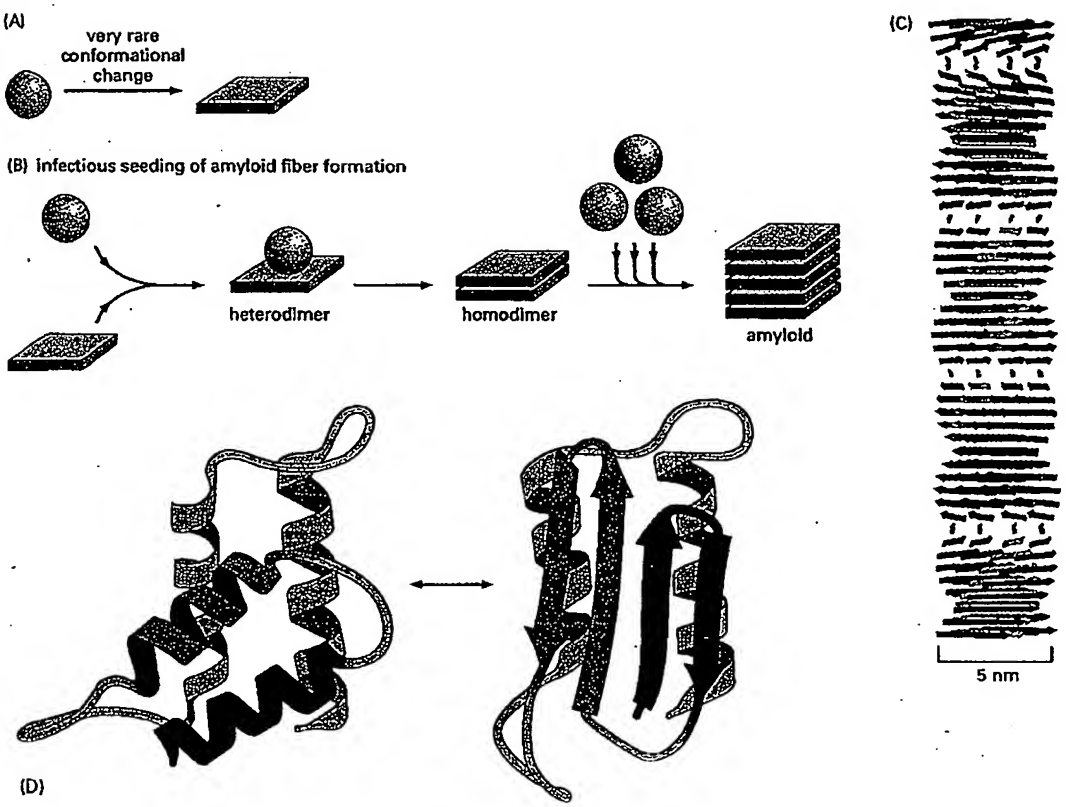

Figure 6–89 Protein aggregates that cause human disease. (A) Schematic illustration of the type of conformational change in a protein that produces material for a cross-beta filament. (B) Diagram illustrating the self-infectious nature of the protein aggregation that is central to prion diseases. PrP is highly unusual because the misfolded version of the protein, called PrP*, induces the normal PrP protein it contacts to change its conformation, as shown. Most of the human diseases caused by protein aggregation are caused by the overproduction of a variant protein that is especially prone to aggregation, but because this structure is not infectious in this way, it cannot spread from one animal to another. (C) Drawing of a cross-beta filament, a common type of protease-resistant protein aggregate found in a variety of human neurological diseases. Because the hydrogen-bond interactions in a β sheet form between polypeptide backbone atoms (see Figure 3–9), a number of different abnormally folded proteins can produce this structure. (D) One of several possible models for the conversion of PrP to PrP*, showing the likely change of two α-helices into four β-strands. Although the structure of the normal protein has been determined accurately, the structure of the infectious form is not yet known with certainty because the aggregation has prevented the use of standard structural techniques. (C, courtesy of Louise Serpell, adapted from M. Sunde et al., *J. Mol. Biol.* 273:729–739, 1997; D, adapted from S.B. Prusiner, *Trends Biochem. Sci.* 21:482–487, 1996.)

animals and humans. It can be dangerous to eat the tissues of animals that contain PrP*, as witnessed most recently by the spread of BSE (commonly referred to as the "mad cow disease") from cattle to humans in Great Britain.

Fortunately, in the absence of PrP*, PrP is extraordinarily difficult to convert to its abnormal form. Although very few proteins have the potential to misfold into an infectious conformation, a similar transformation has been discovered to be the cause of an otherwise mysterious "protein-only inheritance" observed in yeast cells.

There Are Many Steps From DNA to Protein

We have seen so far in this chapter that many different types of chemical reactions are required to produce a properly folded protein from the information contained in a gene (Figure 6–90). The final level of a properly folded protein in a cell therefore depends upon the efficiency with which each of the many steps is performed.

We discuss in Chapter 7 that cells have the ability to change the levels of their proteins according to their needs. In principle, any or all of the steps in Fig-

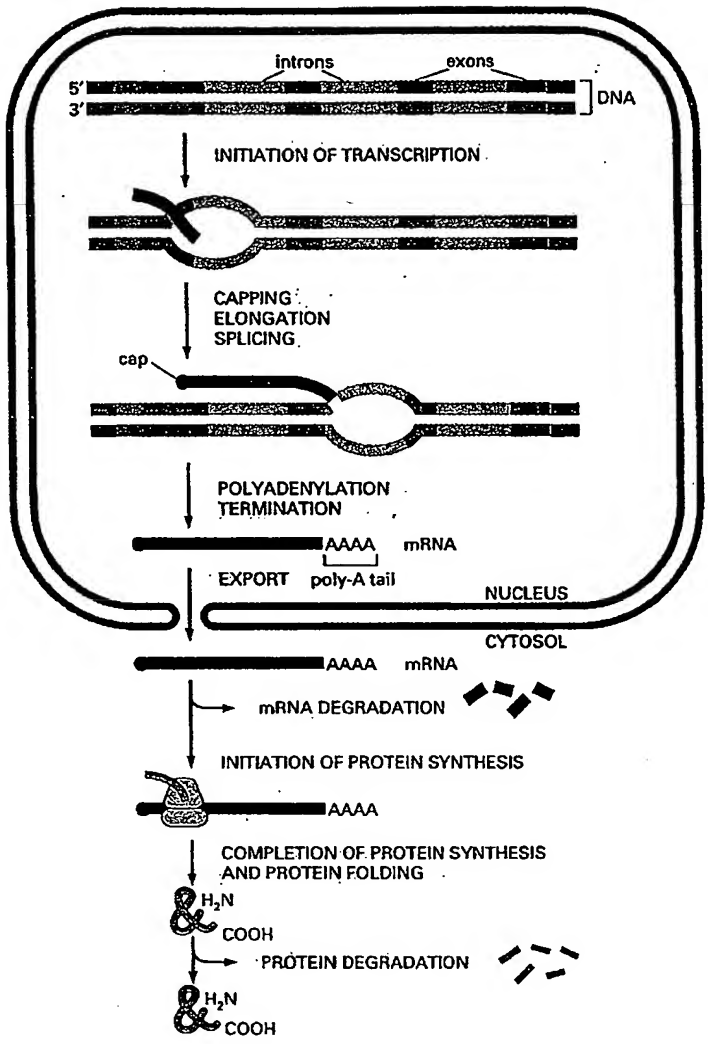

Figure 6–90 The production of a protein by a eucaryotic cell. The final level of each protein in a eucaryotic cell depends upon the efficiency of each step depicted.

ure 6–90) could be regulated by the cell for each individual protein. However, as we shall see in Chapter 7, the initiation of transcription is the most common point for a cell to regulate the expression of each of its genes. This makes sense, inasmuch as the most efficient way to keep a gene from being expressed is to block the very first step—the transcription of its DNA sequence into an RNA molecule.

Summary

The translation of the nucleotide sequence of an mRNA molecule into protein takes place in the cytoplasm on a large ribonucleoprotein assembly called a ribosome. The amino acids used for protein synthesis are first attached to a family of tRNA molecules, each of which recognizes, by complementary base-pair interactions, particular sets of three nucleotides in the mRNA (codons). The sequence of nucleotides in the mRNA is then read from one end to the other in sets of three according to the genetic code.

To initiate translation, a small ribosomal subunit binds to the mRNA molecule at a start codon (AUG) that is recognized by a unique initiator tRNA molecule. A large ribosomal subunit binds to complete the ribosome and begin the elongation phase of protein synthesis. During this phase, aminoacyl tRNAs—each bearing a specific amino acid bind sequentially to the appropriate codon in mRNA by forming complementary base pairs with the tRNA anticodon. Each amino acid is added to the C-terminal end of the growing polypeptide by means of a cycle of three sequential

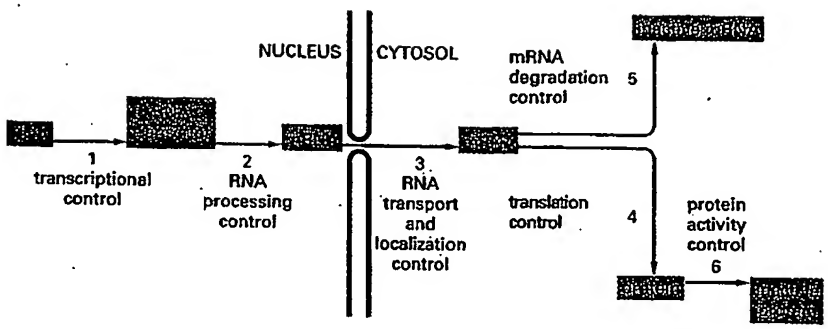

Figure 7–5 Six steps at which eucaryotic gene expression can be controlled. Controls that operate at steps 1 through 5 are discussed in this chapter. Step 6, the regulation of protein activity, includes reversible activation or inactivation by protein phosphorylation (discussed in Chapter 3) as well as irreversible inactivation by proteolytic degradation (discussed in Chapter 6).

Gene Expression Can Be Regulated at Many of the Steps in the Pathway from DNA to RNA to Protein

If differences among the various cell types of an organism depend on the particular genes that the cells express, at what level is the control of gene expression exercised? As we saw in the last chapter, there are many steps in the pathway leading from DNA to protein, and all of them can in principle be regulated. Thus a cell can control the proteins it makes by (1) controlling when and how often a given gene is transcribed (**transcriptional control**), (2) controlling how the RNA transcript is spliced or otherwise processed (**RNA processing control**), (3) selecting which completed mRNAs in the cell nucleus are exported to the cytosol and determining where in the cytosol they are localized (**RNA transport and localization control**), (4) selecting which mRNAs in the cytoplasm are translated by ribosomes (**translational control**), (5) selectively destabilizing certain mRNA molecules in the cytoplasm (**mRNA degradation control**), or (6) selectively activating, inactivating, degrading, or compartmentalizing specific protein molecules after they have been made (**protein activity control**) (Figure 7–5).

For most genes transcriptional controls are paramount. This makes sense because, of all the possible control points illustrated in Figure 7–5, only transcriptional control ensures that the cell will not synthesize superfluous intermediates. In the following sections we discuss the DNA and protein components that perform this function by regulating the initiation of gene transcription. We shall return at the end of the chapter to the additional ways of regulating gene expression.

Summary

The genome of a cell contains in its DNA sequence the information to make many thousands of different protein and RNA molecules. A cell typically expresses only a fraction of its genes, and the different types of cells in multicellular organisms arise because different sets of genes are expressed. Moreover, cells can change the pattern of genes they express in response to changes in their environment, such as signals from other cells. Although all of the steps involved in expressing a gene can in principle be regulated, for most genes the initiation of RNA transcription is the most important point of control.

DNA-BINDING MOTIFS IN GENE REGULATORY PROTEINS

How does a cell determine which of its thousands of genes to transcribe? As mentioned briefly in Chapters 4 and 6, the transcription of each gene is controlled by a regulatory region of DNA relatively near the site where transcription begins. Some regulatory regions are simple and act as switches that are thrown by a single signal. Many others are complex and act as tiny microprocessors, responding to a variety of signals that they interpret and integrate to switch the neighboring gene on or off. Whether complex or simple, these switching devices

occur in the germ line, the cell lineage that gives rise to sperm or eggs. Most of the DNA in vertebrate germ cells is inactive and highly methylated. Over long periods of evolutionary time, the methylated CG sequences in these inactive regions have presumably been lost through spontaneous deamination events that were not properly repaired. However promoters of genes that remain active in the germ cell lineages (including most housekeeping genes) are kept unmethylated, and therefore spontaneous deaminations of Cs that occur within them can be accurately repaired. Such regions are preserved in modern day vertebrate cells as CG islands. In addition, any mutation of a CG sequence in the genome that destroyed the function or regulation of a gene in the adult would be selected against, and some CG islands are simply the result of a higher than normal density of critical CG sequences.

The mammalian genome contains an estimated 20,000 CG islands. Most of the islands mark the 5′ ends of transcription units and thus, presumably, of genes. The presence of CG islands often provides a convenient way of identifying genes in the DNA sequences of vertebrate genomes.

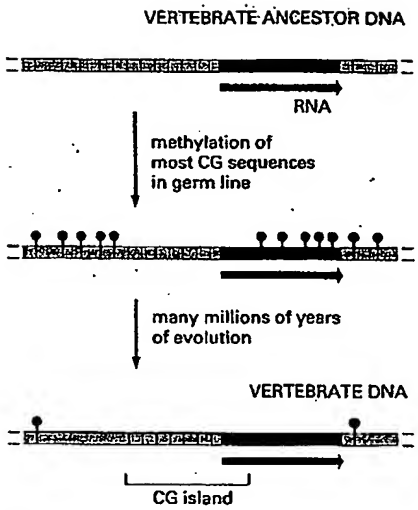

Figure 7–86 A mechanism to explain both the marked overall deficiency of CG sequences and their clustering into CG islands in vertebrate genomes. A *black line* marks the location of a CG dinucleotide in the DNA sequence, while a *red* "lollipop" indicates the presence of a methyl group on the CG dinucleotide. CG sequences that lie in regulatory sequences of genes that are transcribed in germ cells are unmethylated and therefore tend to be retained in evolution. Methylated CG sequences, on the other hand, tend to be lost through deamination of 5-methyl C to T, unless the CG sequence is critical for survival.

Summary

The many types of cells in animals and plants are created largely through mechanisms that cause different genes to be transcribed in different cells. Since many specialized animal cells can maintain their unique character through many cell division cycles and even when grown in culture, the gene regulatory mechanisms involved in creating them must be stable once established and heritable when the cell divides. These features endow the cell with a memory of its developmental history. Bacteria and yeasts provide unusually accessible model systems in which to study gene regulatory mechanisms. One such mechanism involves a competitive interaction between two gene regulatory proteins, each of which inhibits the synthesis of the other; this can create a flip-flop switch that switches a cell between two alternative patterns of gene expression. Direct or indirect positive feedback loops, which enable gene regulatory proteins to perpetuate their own synthesis, provide a general mechanism for cell memory. Negative feedback loops with programmed delays form the basis for cellular clocks.

In eucaryotes the transcription of a gene is generally controlled by combinations of gene regulatory proteins. It is thought that each type of cell in a higher eucaryotic organism contains a specific combination of gene regulatory proteins that ensures the expression of only those genes appropriate to that type of cell. A given gene regulatory protein may be active in a variety of circumstances and typically is involved in the regulation of many genes.

In addition to diffusible gene regulatory proteins, inherited states of chromatin condensation are also used by eucaryotic cells to regulate gene expression. An especially dramatic case is the inactivation of an entire X chromosome in female mammals. In vertebrates DNA methylation also functions in gene regulation, being used mainly as a device to reinforce decisions about gene expression that are made initially by other mechanisms. DNA methylation also underlies the phenomenon of genomic imprinting in mammals, in which the expression of a gene depends on whether it was inherited from the mother or the father.

POSTTRANSCRIPTIONAL CONTROLS

In principle, every step required for the process of gene expression could be controlled. Indeed, one can find examples of each type of regulation, although any one gene is likely to use only a few of them. Controls on the initiation of gene transcription are the predominant form of regulation for most genes. But other controls can act later in the pathway from DNA to protein to modulate the amount of gene product that is made. Although these **posttranscriptional controls**, which operate after RNA polymerase has bound to the gene's promoter and begun RNA synthesis, are less common than *transcriptional control*, for many genes they are crucial.

CHAPTER 29

Regulation of transcription

Genes VII (1997) CH 29, pp. 847-848.
Benjamin Lewin

The phenotypic differences that distinguish the various kinds of cells in a higher eukaryote are largely due to differences in the expression of genes that code for proteins, that is, those transcribed by RNA polymerase II. In principle, the expression of these genes might be regulated at any one of several stages. The concept of the "level of control" implies that gene expression is not necessarily an automatic process once it has begun. It could be regulated in a gene-specific way at any one of several sequential steps. We can distinguish (at least) five potential control points, forming the series:

Activation of gene structure
↓
Initiation of transcription
↓
Processing the transcript
↓
Transport to cytoplasm
↓
Translation of mRNA

The existence of the first step is implied by the discovery that genes may exist in either of two structural conditions. Relative to the state of most of the genome, genes are found in an "active" state in the cells in which they are expressed (see Chapter 27). The change of structure is distinct from the act of transcription, and indicates that the gene is "transcribable." This suggests that acquisition of the "active" structure must be the first step in gene expression.

Transcription of a gene in the active state is controlled at the stage of initiation, that is, by the interaction of RNA polymerase with its promoter. This is now becoming susceptible to analysis in the *in vitro* systems (see Chapter 28). For most genes, this is a major control point: probably it is the most common level of regulation.

There is at present no evidence for control at subsequent stages of transcription in eukaryotic cells, for example, via antitermination mechanisms.

The primary transcript is modified by capping at the 5′ end, and usually also by polyadenylation at the 3′ end. Introns must be spliced out from the transcripts of interrupted genes. The mature RNA must be exported from the nucleus to the cytoplasm. Regulation of gene expression by selection of sequences at the level of nuclear RNA might involve any or all of these stages, but the one for which we have most evidence concerns changes in splicing: some genes are expressed by means of alternative splicing patterns whose regulation controls the type of protein product (see Chapter 30).

Finally, the translation of an mRNA in the cytoplasm can be specifically controlled. There is little evidence for the employment of this mechanism in adult somatic cells, but it does occur in some embryonic situations, as described in Chapter 7. The mechanism is presumed to involve the blocking of initiation of translation of some mRNAs by specific protein factors.

But having acknowledged that control of gene expression can occur at multiple stages, and that production of RNA cannot inevitably be equated with production of protein; it is clear

that the overwhelming majority of regulatory events occur at the initiation of transcription. Regulation of tissue-specific gene transcription lies at the heart of eukaryotic differentiation; indeed, we see examples in Chapter 38 in which proteins that regulate embryonic development prove to be transcription factors. A regulatory transcription factor serves to provide common control of a large number of target genes, and we seek to answer two questions about this mode of regulation: what identifies the common target genes to the transcription factor; and how is the activity of the transcription factor itself regulated in response to intrinsic or extrinsic signals?

Response elements identify genes under common regulation

The principle that emerges from characterizing groups of genes under common control is that *they share a promoter element that is recognized by a regulatory transcription factor.* An element that causes a gene to respond to such a factor is called a **response element**; examples are the **HSE** (heat shock response element), **GRE** (glucocorticoid response element), **SRE** (serum response element).

The properties of some inducible transcription factors and the elements that they recognize are summarized in **Table 29.1**. Response elements have the same general characteristics as upstream elements of promoters or enhancers. They contain short consensus sequences, and copies of the response elements found in different genes are closely related, but not necessarily identical. The region bound by the factor extends for a short distance on either side of the consensus sequence. In promoters, the elements are not present at fixed distances from the startpoint, but are usually <200 bp upstream of it. The presence of a single element usually is sufficient to confer the regulatory response, but sometimes there are multiple copies.

Table 29.1 Inducible transcription factors bind to response elements that identify groups of promoters or enhancers subject to coordinate control.

Regulatory Agent	Module	Consensus	Factor
Heat shock	HSE	CNNGAANNTCGNNG	HSTF
Glucocorticoid	GRE	TGGTACAAATGTTCT	Receptor
Phorbol ester	TRE	TGACTCA	AP1
Serum	SRE	CCATATTAGG	SRF

Response elements may be located in promoters or in enhancers. Some types of elements are typically found in one rather than the other: usually an HSE is found in a promoter, while a GRE is found in an enhancer. We assume that all response elements function by the same general principle. *A gene is regulated by a sequence at the promoter or enhancer that is recognized by a specific protein. The protein functions as a transcription factor needed for RNA polymerase to initiate. Active protein is available only under conditions when the gene is to be expressed; its absence means that the promoter is not activated by this particular circuit.*

An example of a situation in which many genes are controlled by a single factor is provided by the heat shock response. This is common to a wide range of prokaryotes and eukaryotes and involves multiple controls of gene expression: an increase in temperature turns off transcription of some genes, turns on transcription of the heat shock genes, and causes changes in the translation of mRNAs. The control of the heat shock genes illustrates the differences between prokaryotic and eukaryotic modes of control. In bacteria, a new sigma factor is synthesized that directs RNA polymerase holoenzyme to recognize an alter-

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Prostate stem cell antigen (PSCA) expression in human prostate cancer tissues and its potential role in prostate carcinogenesis and progression of prostate cancer

Zhao Zhigang*[1] and Shen Wenlv[2]

Address: [1]Department of Urology, Shantou University Medical College, Shantou, Guangdong, China and [2]Department of Urology, No 2. Affiliated Hospital of Shantou University Medical College, Shantou, Guangdong, China

Email: Zhao Zhigang* - zgzhaodr@yahoo.com.cn; Shen Wenlv - wlshen99@hotmail.com

* Corresponding author

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Abstract

Background: Prostate stem cell antigen (PSCA) is a recently defined homologue of the Thy-1/Ly-6 family of glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI)-anchored cell surface antigens. The purpose of the present study was to examine the expression status of PSCA protein and mRNA in clinical specimens of human prostate cancer (Pca) and to validate it as a potential molecular target for diagnosis and treatment of Pca.

Materials and Methods: Immunohistochemical (IHC) and *in situ* hybridization (ISH) analyses of PSCA expression were simultaneously performed on paraffin-embedded sections from 20 benign prostatic hyperplasia (BPH), 20 prostatic intraepithelial neoplasm (PIN) and 48 prostate cancer (Pca) tissues, including 9 androgen-independent prostate cancers. The level of PSCA expression was semiquantitatively scored by assessing both the percentage and intensity of PSCA-positive staining cells in the specimens. Then compared PSCA expression between BPH, PIN and Pca tissues and analysed the correlations of PSCA expression level with pathological grade, clinical stage and progression to androgen-independence in Pca.

Results: In BPH and low grade PIN, PSCA protein and mRNA staining were weak or negative and less intense and uniform than that seen in HGPIN and Pca. There were moderate to strong PSCA protein and mRNA expression in 8 of 11 (72.7%) HGPIN and in 40 of 48 (83.4%) Pca specimens examined by IHC and ISH analyses, with statistical significance compared with BPH (20%) and low grade PIN (22.2%) samples ($p < 0.05$, respectively). The expression level of PSCA increased with high Gleason grade, advanced stage and progression to androgen-independence ($p < 0.05$, respectively). In addition, IHC and ISH staining showed a high degree of correlation between PSCA protein and mRNA overexpression.

Conclusions: Our data demonstrate that PSCA as a new cell surface marker is overexpressed by a majority of human Pca. PSCA expression correlates positively with adverse tumor characteristics, such as increasing pathological grade (poor cell differentiation), worsening clinical stage and androgen-independence, and speculatively with prostate carcinogenesis. PSCA protein overexpression results from upregulated transcription of PSCA mRNA. PSCA may have prognostic utility and may be a promising molecular target for diagnosis and treatment of Pca.

Introduction

Prostate cancer (Pca) is the second leading cause of cancer-related death in American men and is becoming a common cancer increasing in China. Despite recently great progress in the diagnosis and management of localized disease, there continues to be a need for new diagnostic markers that can accurately discriminate between indolent and aggressive variants of Pca. There also continues to be a need for the identification and characterization of potential new therapeutic targets on Pca cells. Current diagnostic and therapeutic modalities for recurrent and metastatic Pca have been limited by a lack of specific target antigens of Pca.

Although a number of prostate-specific genes have been identified (i.e. prostate specific antigen, prostatic acid phosphatase, glandular kallikrein 2), the majority of these are secreted proteins not ideally suited for many immunological strategies. So, the identification of new cell surface antigens is critical to the development of new diagnostic and therapeutic approaches to the management of Pca.

Reiter RE et al [1] reported the identification of prostate stem cell antigen (PSCA), a cell surface antigen that is predominantly prostate specific. The PSCA gene encodes a 123 amino acid glycoprotein, with 30% homology to stem cell antigen 2 (Sca 2). Like Sca-2, PSCA also belongs to a member of the Thy-1/Ly-6 family and is anchored by a glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI) linkage. mRNA *in situ* hybridization (ISH) localized PSCA expression in normal prostate to the basal cell epithelium, the putative stem cell compartment of prostatic epithelium, suggesting that PSCA may be a marker of prostate stem/progenitor cells.

In order to examine the status of PSCA protein and mRNA expression in human Pca and validate it as a potential diagnostic and therapeutic target for Pca, we used immunohistochemistry (IHC) and *in situ* hybridization (ISH) simultaneously, and conducted PSCA protein and mRNA expression analyses in paraffin-embedded tissue specimens of benign prostatic hyperplasia (BPH, n = 20), prostate intraepithelial neoplasm (PIN, n = 20) and prostate cancer (Pca, n = 48). Furthermore, we evaluated the possible correlation of PSCA expression level with Pca tumorigenesis, grade, stage and progression to androgen-independence.

Materials and methods

Tissue samples

All of the clinical tissue specimens studied herein were obtained from 80 patients of 57–84 years old by prostatectomy, transurethral resection of prostate (TURP) or biopsies. The patients were classified as 20 cases of BPH, 20 cases of PIN, 40 cases of primary Pca, including 9 patients with recurrent Pca and a history of androgen ablation therapy (orchiectomy and/or hormonal therapy), who were referred to as androgen-independent prostate cancers. Eight specimens were harvested from these androgen-independent Pca patients prior to androgen ablation treatment. Each tissue sample was cut into two parts, one was fixed in 10% formalin for IHC and the other treated with 4% paraformaldehyde/0.1 M PBS PH 7.4 in 0.1% DEPC for 1 h for ISH analysis, and then embedded in paraffin. All paraffin blocks examined were then cut into 5 μm sections and mounted on the glass slides specific for IHC and ISH respectively in the usual fashion. H&E-stained section of each Pca was evaluated and assigned a Gleason score by the experienced urological pathologist at our institution based on the criteria of Gleason score [2]. The Gleason sums are summarized in Table 1. Clinical staging was performed according to Jewett-whitmore-prout staging system, as shown in Table 2. In the category of PIN, we graded the specimens into two groups, i.e. low grade PIN (grade I - II) and high grade PIN (HGPIN, grade III) on the basis of literatures [3,4].

Immunohistochemical (IHC) analysis

Briefly, tissue sections were deparaffinized, dehydrated, and subjected to microwaving in 10 mmol/L citrate buffer, PH 6.0 (Boshide, Wuhan, China) in a 900 W oven for 5 min to induce epitope retrieval. Slides were allowed to cool at room temperature for 30 min. A primary mouse antibody specific to human PSCA (Boshide, Wuhan, China) with a 1:100 dilution was applied to incubate with the slides at room temperature for 2 h. Labeling was detected by sequentially adding biotinylated secondary antibodies and strepavidin-peroxidase, and localized using 3,3'-diaminobenzidine reaction. Sections were then counterstained with hematoxylin. Substitution of the primary antibody with phosphate-buffered-saline (PBS) served as a negative-staining control.

mRNA in situ hybridization (ISH)

Five-μm-thick tissue sections were deparaffinized and dehydrated, then digested in pepsin solution (4 mg/ml in 3% citric acid) for 20 min at 37.5°C, and further processed for ISH. Digoxigenin-labeled sense and antisense human PSCA RNA probes (obtained from Boshide, Wuhan, China) were hybridized to the sections at 48°C overnight. The posthybridization wash with a high stringency was performed sequentially at 37°C in 2 × standard saline citrate (SSC) for 10 min, in 0.5 × SSC for 15 min and in 0.2 × SSC for 30 min. The slides were then incubated to biotinylated mouse anti-digoxigenin antibody at 37.5°C for 1 h followed by washing in 1 × PBS for 20 min at room temperature, and then to strepavidin-peroxidase at 37.5°C for 20 min followed by washing in 1 × PBS for 15 min at room temperature. Subsequently, the slides were developed with diaminobenzidine and then coun-

Table 1: Correlation of PSCA expression with Gleason score

	Intensity × frequency	
Gleason score	0–6 (%)	9 (%)
2–4	5 (83)	1 (17)
5–7	19 (79)	5 (21)
8–10	5 (28)	13 (72)

Table 2: Correlation of PSCA expression with clinical stage

	Intensity × frequency	
Tumor stage	0–6 (%)	9 (%)
≤B	27 (67.5)	13 (32.5)
≥C	2 (25)	6 (75)

terstained with hematoxylin to localize the hybridization signals. Sections hybridized with the sense control probes routinely did not show any specific hybridization signal above background. All slides were hybridized with PBS to substitute for the probes as a negative control.

Scoring methods

To determine the correlation between the results of PSCA immunostaining and mRNA *in situ* hybridization, the same scoring manners are taken in the present study for PSCA protein staining by IHC and PSCA mRNA staining by ISH. Each slide was read and scored by two independently experienced urological pathologists using Olympus BX-41 light microscopes. The evaluation was done in a blinded fashion. For each section, five areas of similar grade were analyzed semiquantitatively for the fraction of cells staining. Fifty percent of specimens were randomly chosen and rescored to determine the degree of interobserver and intraobserver concordance. There was greater than 95% intra- and interobserver agreement.

The intensity of PSCA expression evaluated microscopically was graded on a scale of 0 to 3+ with 3 being the highest expression observed (0, no staining; 1+, mildly intense; 2+, moderately intense; 3+, severely intense). The staining density was quantified as the percentage of cells staining positive for PSCA with the primary antibody or hybridization probe, as follows: 0 = no staining; 1 = positive staining in <25% of the sample; 2 = positive staining in 25%–50% of the sample; 3 = positive staining in >50% of the sample. Intensity score (0 to 3+) was multiplied by the density score (0–3) to give an overall score of 0–9 [1,5]. In this way, we were able to differentiate specimens that may have had focal areas of increased staining from those that had diffuse areas of increased staining [6]. The overall score for each specimen was then categorically assigned to one of the following groups: 0 score, negative expression; 1–2 scores, weak expression; 3–6 scores, moderate expression; 9 score, strong expression.

Statistical analysis

Intensity and density of PSCA protein and mRNA expression in BPH, PIN and Pca tissues were compared using the Chi-square and Student's *t*-test. Univariate associations between PSCA expression and Gleason score, clinical stage and progression to androgen-independence were calculated using Fisher's Exact Test. For all analyses, $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

Results

PSCA expression in BPH

In general, PSCA protein and mRNA were expressed weakly in individual samples of BPH. Some areas of prostate expressed weak levels (composite score 1–2), whereas other areas were completely negative (composite score 0). Four cases (20%) of BPH had moderate expression of PSCA protein and mRNA (composite score 4–6) by IHC and ISH. In 2/20 (10%) BPH specimens, PSCA mRNA expression was moderate (composite score 3–6), but PSCA protein expression was weak (composite score

2) in one and negative (composite score 0) in the other. PSCA expression was localized to the basal and secretory epithelial cells, and prostatic stroma was almost negative staining for PSCA protein and mRNA in all cases examined.

PSCA expression in PIN

In this study, we detected weak or negative expression of PSCA protein and mRNA (≤2 scores) in 7 of 9 (77.8%) low grade PIN and in 2 of 11 (18.2%) HGPIN, and moderate expression (3–6 scores) in the rest 2 low grade PIN and 5 of 11 (45.5%) HGPIN. One HGPIN with moderate PSCA mRNA expression (6 score) was found weak staining for PSCA protein (2 score) by IHC. Strong PSCA protein and mRNA expression (9 score) were detected in the remaining 3 of 11 (27.3%) HGPIN. There was a statistically significant difference of PSCA protein and mRNA expression levels observed between HGPIN and BPH ($p < 0.05$), but no statistical difference reached between low grade PIN and BPH ($p > 0.05$).

PSCA expression in Pca

In order to determine if PSCA protein and mRNA can be detected in prostate cancers and if PSCA expression levels are increased in malignant compared with benign glands, Forty-eight paraffin-embedded Pca specimens were analysed by IHC and ISH. It was shown that 19 of 48 (39.6%) Pca samples stained very strongly for PSCA protein and mRNA with a score of 9 and another 21 (43.8%) specimens displayed moderate staining with scores of 4–6 (Figure 1). In addition, 4 specimens with moderate to strong PSCA mRNA expression (scores of 4–9) had weak protein staining (a score of 2) by IHC analyses. Overall, Pca expressed a significantly higher level of PSCA protein and mRNA than any other specimen category in this study ($p < 0.05$, compared with BPH and PIN respectively). The result demonstrates that PSCA protein and mRNA are overexpressed by a majority of human Pca.

Correlation of PSCA expression with Gleason score in Pca

Using the semi-quantitative scoring method as described in Materials and Methods, we compared the expression level of PSCA protein and mRNA with Gleason grade of Pca, as shown in Table 1. Prostate adenocarcinomas were graded by Gleason score as 2–4 scores = well-differentiation, 5–7 scores = moderate-differentiation and 8–10 scores = poor-differentiation [7]. Seventy-two percent of Gleason scores 8–10 prostate cancers had very strong staining of PSCA compared to 21% with Gleason scores 5–7 and 17% with 2–4 respectively, demonstrating that poorly differentiated Pca had significantly stronger expression of PSCA protein and mRNA than moderately and well differentiated tumors ($p < 0.05$). As depicted in Figure 1, IHC and ISH analyses showed that PSCA protein and mRNA expression in several cases of poorly differentiated Pca were particularly prominent, with more intense and uniform staining. The results indicate that PSCA expression increases significantly with higher tumor grade in human Pca.

Correlation of PSCA expression with clinical stage in Pca

With regards to PSCA expression in every stage of Pca, we showed the results in Table 2. Seventy-five percent of locally advanced and node positive cancers (i.e. C-D stages) expressed statistically high levels of PSCA versus 32.5% that were organ confined (i.e. A-B stages) ($p < 0.05$). The data demonstrate that PSCA expression increases significantly with advanced tumor stage in human Pca.

Correlation of PSCA expression with androgen-independent progression of Pca

All 9 specimens of androgen-independent prostate cancers stained positive for PSCA protein and mRNA. Eight specimens were obtained from patients managed prior to androgen ablation therapy. Seven of eight (87.5%) of these androgen-independent prostate cancers were in the strongest staining category (score = 9), compared with three out of eight (37.5%) of patients with androgen-dependent cancers ($p < 0.05$). The results demonstrate that PSCA expression increases significantly with progression to androgen-independence of human Pca.

It is evident from the results above that within a majority of human prostate cancers the level of PSCA protein and mRNA expression correlates significantly with increasing grade, worsening stage and progression to androgen-independence.

Correlation of PSCA immunostaining and mRNA in situ hybridization

In all 88 specimens surveyed herein, we compared the results of PSCA IHC staining with mRNA ISH analysis. Positive staining areas and its intensity and density scores evaluated by IHC were identical to those seen by ISH in 79 of 88 (89.8%) specimens (18/20 BPH, 19/20 PIN and 42/48 Pca respectively). Importantly, 27/27 samples with PSCA mRNA composite scores of 0–2, 32/36 samples with scores of 3–6 and 22/24 samples with a score of 9 also had PSCA protein expression scores of 0–2, 3–6 and 9 respectively. However, in 5 samples with PSCA mRNA overall scores of 3–6 and in 2 with scores of 9 there were less or negative PSCA protein expression (i.e. scores of 0–4), suggesting that this may reflect posttranscriptional modification of PSCA or that the epitopes recognized by PSCA mAb may be obscured in some cancers. The data demonstrate that the results of PSCA immunostaining were consistent with those of mRNA ISH analysis, showing a high degree of correlation between PSCA protein and mRNA expression.

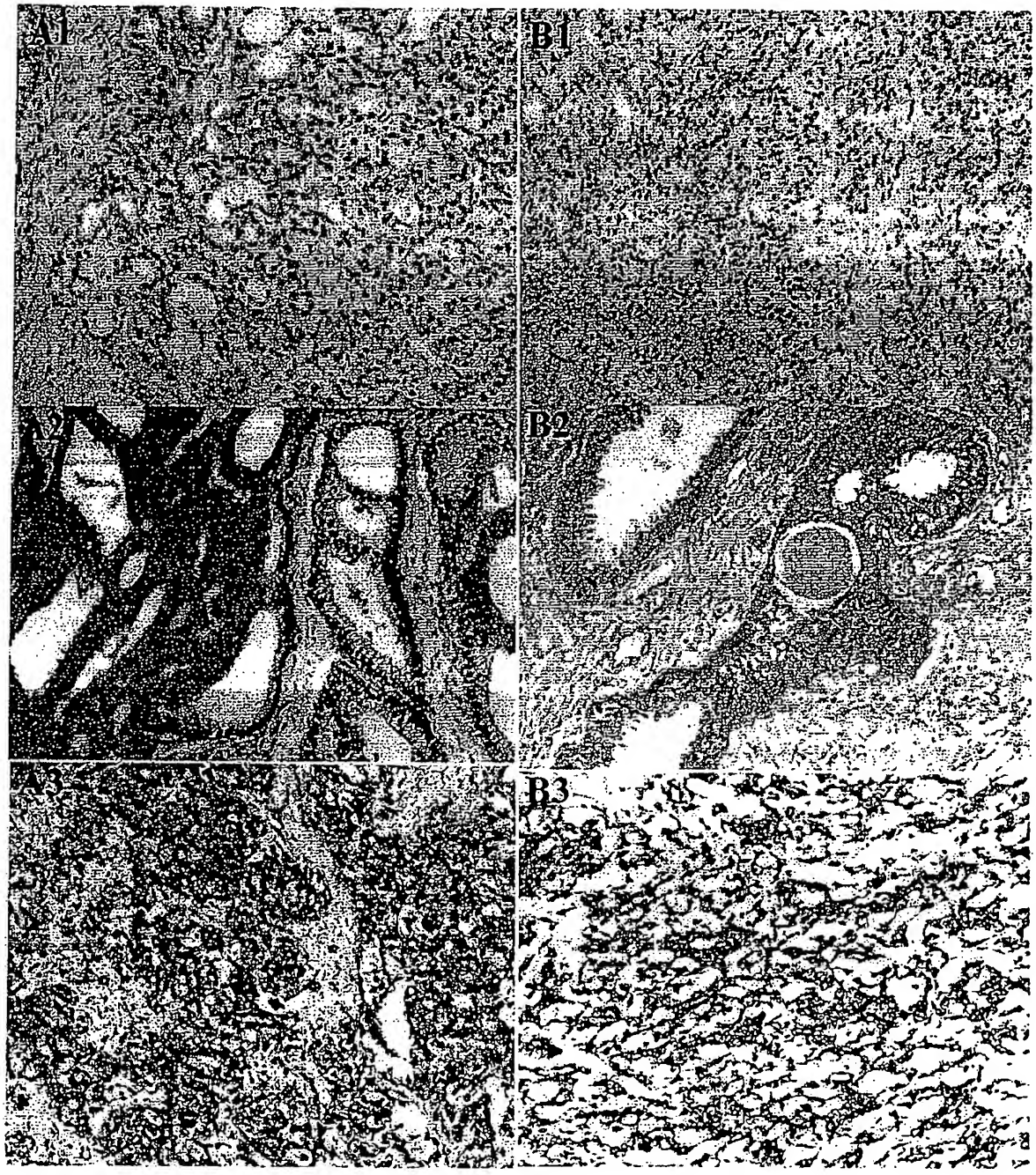

Figure 1

Representatives of PSCA IHC and ISH staining in Pca (A. IHC staining, B. ISH staining, ×200 magnification). A_1, B_1: negative control of IHC and ISH. PBS replacing the primary antibody (A_1) and hybridization with a sense PSCA probe (B_1) showed no background staining. A_2, B_2: a moderately differentiated Pca (Gleason score = 3+3 = 6) with moderate staining (composite score = 6) in all malignant cells; A_2: IHC shows not only cell surface but also apparent cytoplasmic staining of PSCA protein. A_3, B_3: a poorly differentiated Pca (Gleason score = 4+4 = 8) with very strong staining (composite score = 9) in all malignant cells.

Discussion

PSCA is homologous to a group of cell surface proteins that mark the earliest phase of hematopoietic development. PSCA mRNA expression is prostate-specific in normal male tissues and is highly up-regulated in both androgen-dependent and-independent Pca xenografts (LAPC-4 tumors). We hypothesize that PSCA may play a role in Pca tumorigenesis and progression, and may serve as a target for Pca diagnosis and treatment. In this study, IHC and ISH showed that in general there were weak or absent PSCA protein and mRNA expression in BPH and low grade PIN tissues. However, PSCA protein and mRNA are widely expressed in HGPIN, the putative precursor of invasive Pca, suggesting that up-regulation of PSCA is an early event in prostate carcinogenesis. Recently, Reiter RE et al [1], using ISH analysis, reported that 97 of 118 (82%) HGPIN specimens stained strongly positive for PSCA mRNA. A very similar finding was seen on mouse PSCA (mPSCA) expression in mouse HGPIN tissues by Tran C. P et al [8]. These data suggest that PSCA may be a new marker associated with transformation of prostate cells and tumorigenesis.

We observed that PSCA protein and mRNA are highly expressed in a large percentage of human prostate cancers, including advanced, poorly differentiated, androgen-independent and metastatic cases. Fluorescence-activated cell sorting and confocal/ immunofluorescent studies demonstrated cell surface expression of PSCA protein in Pca cells [9]. Our IHC expression analysis of PSCA shows not only cell surface but also apparent cytoplasmic staining of PSCA protein in Pca specimens (Figure 1). One possible explanation for this is that anti-PSCA antibody can recognize PSCA peptide precursors that reside in the cytoplasm. Also, it is possible that the positive staining that appears in the cytoplasm is actually from the overlying cell membrane [5]. These data seem to indicate that PSCA is a novel cell surface marker for human Pca.

Our results show that elevated level of PSCA expression correlates with high grade (i.e. poor differentiation), increased tumor stage and progression to androgen-independence of Pca. These findings support the original IHC analyses by Gu Z et al [9], who reported that PSCA protein expressed in 94% of primary Pca and the intensity of PSCA protein expression increased with tumor grade, stage and progression to androgen-independence. Our results also collaborate the recent work of Han KR et al [10], in which the significant association between high PSCA expression and adverse prognostic features such as high Gleason score, seminal vesicle invasion and capsular involvement in Pca was found. It is suggested that PSCA overexpression may be an adverse predictor for recurrence, clinical progression or survival of Pca. Hara H et al [11] used RT-PCR detection of PSA, PSMA and PSCA in 1 ml of peripheral blood to evaluate Pca patients with poor prognosis. The results showed that among 58 PCa patients, each PCR indicated the prognostic value in the hierarchy of PSCA>PSA>PSMA RT-PCR, and extraprostatic cases with positive PSCA PCR indicated lower disease-progression-free survival than those with negative PSCA PCR, demonstrating that PSCA can be used as a prognostic factor. Dubey P et al [12] reported that elevated numbers of PSCA + cells correlate positively with the onset and development of prostate carcinoma over a long time span in the prostates of the TRAMP and PTEN +/- models compared with its normal prostates. Taken together with our present findings, in which PSCA is overexpressed from HGPIN to almost frank carcinoma, it is reasonable and possible to use increased PSCA expression level or increased numbers of PSCA-positive cells in the prostate samples as a prognostic marker to predict the potential onset of this cancer. These data raise the possibility that PSCA may have diagnostic utility or clinical prognostic value in human Pca.

The cause of PSCA overexpression in Pca is not known. One possible mechanism is that it may result from PSCA gene amplification. In humans, PSCA is located on chromosome 8q24.2 [1], which is often amplified in metastatic and recurrent Pca and considered to indicate a poor prognosis [13-15]. Interestingly, PSCA is in close proximity to the c-myc oncogene, which is amplified in >20% of recurrent and metastatic prostate cancers [16,17]. Reiter RE et al [18] reported that PSCA and MYC gene copy numbers were co-amplified in 25% of tumors (five out of twenty), demonstrating that PSCA overexpression is associated with PSCA and MYC coamplification in Pca. Gu Z et al [9] recently reporteted that in 102 specimens available to compare the results of PSCA immunostaining with their previous mRNA ISH analysis, 92 (90.2%) had identically positive areas of PSCA protein and mRNA expression. Taken together with our findings, in which we detected moderate to strong expression of PSCA protein and mRNA in 34 of 40 (85%) Pca specimens examined simultaneously by IHC and ISH analyses, it is demonstrated that PSCA protein and mRNA overexpressed in human Pca, and that the increased protein level of PSCA was resulted from the upregulated transcription of its mRNA.

At present, the regulation mechanisms of human PSCA expression and its biological function are yet to be elucidated. PSCA expression may be regulated by multiple factors [18]. Watabe T et al [19] reported that transcriptional control is a major component regulating PSCA expression levels. In addition, induction of PSCA expression may be regulated or mediated through cell-cell contact and protein kinase C (PKC) [20]. Homologues of PSCA have diverse activities, and have themselves been involved in

carcinogenesis. Signalling through SCA-2 has been demonstrated to prevent apoptosis in immature thymocytes [21]. Thy-1 is involved in T cell activation and transducts signals through src-like tyrosine kinases [22]. Ly-6 genes have been implicated both in tumorigenesis and in cell-cell adhesion [23-25]. Cell-cell or cell-matrix interaction is critical for local tumor growth and spread to distal sites. From its restricted expression in basal cells of normal prostate and its homology to SCA-2, PSCA may play a role in stem/progenitor cell function, such as self-renewal (i.e. anti-apoptosis) and/or proliferation [1]. Taken together with the results in the present study, we speculate that PSCA may play a role in tumorigenesis and clinical progression of Pca through affecting cell transformation and proliferation. From our results, it is also suggested that PSCA as a new cell surface antigen may have a number of potential uses in the diagnosis, therapy and clinical prognosis of human Pca. PSCA overexpression in prostate biopsies could be used to identify patients at high risk to develop recurrent or metastatic disease, and to discriminate cancers from normal glands in prostatectomy samples. Similarly, the detection of PSCA-overexpressing cells in bone marrow or peripheral blood may identify and predict metastatic progression better than current assays, which identify only PSA-positive or PSMA-positive prostate cells.

In summary, we have shown in this study that PSCA protein and mRNA are maintained in expression from HGPIN through all stages of Pca in a majority of cases, which may be associated with prostate carcinogenesis and correlate positively with high tumor grade (poor cell differentiation), advanced stage and androgen-independent progression. PSCA protein overexpression is due to the upregulation of its mRNA transcription. The results suggest that PSCA may be a promising molecular marker for the clinical prognosis of human Pca and a valuable target for diagnosis and therapy of this tumor.

Competing interests

None declared.

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Review

Translation Initiation in Cancer: A Novel Target for Therapy[1]

Funda Meric[2] and Kelly K. Hunt

Department of Surgical Oncology, The University of Texas M. D. Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, Texas 77030

Abstract

Translation initiation is regulated in response to nutrient availability and mitogenic stimulation and is coupled with cell cycle progression and cell growth. Several alterations in translational control occur in cancer. Variant mRNA sequences can alter the translational efficiency of individual mRNA molecules, which in turn play a role in cancer biology. Changes in the expression or availability of components of the translational machinery and in the activation of translation through signal transduction pathways can lead to more global changes, such as an increase in the overall rate of protein synthesis and translational activation of the mRNA molecules involved in cell growth and proliferation. We review the basic principles of translational control, the alterations encountered in cancer, and selected therapies targeting translation initiation to help elucidate new therapeutic avenues.

Introduction

The fundamental principle of molecular therapeutics in cancer is to exploit the differences in gene expression between cancer cells and normal cells. With the advent of cDNA array technology, most efforts have concentrated on identifying differences in gene expression at the level of mRNA, which can be attributable either to DNA amplification or to differences in transcription. Gene expression is quite complicated, however, and is also regulated at the level of mRNA stability, mRNA translation, and protein stability.

The power of translational regulation has been best recognized among developmental biologists, because transcription does not occur in early embryogenesis in eukaryotes. For example, in *Xenopus*, the period of transcriptional quiescence continues until the embryo reaches midblastula transition, the 4000-cell stage. Therefore, all necessary mRNA molecules are transcribed during oogenesis and stockpiled in a translationally inactive, masked form. The mRNA are translationally activated at appropriate times during oocyte maturation, fertilization, and early embryogenesis and thus, are under strict translational control.

Translation has an established role in cell growth. Basically, an increase in protein synthesis occurs as a consequence of mitogenesis. Until recently, however, little was known about the alterations in mRNA translation in cancer, and much is yet to be discovered about their role in the development and progression of cancer. Here we review the basic principles of translational control, the alterations encountered in cancer, and selected therapies targeting translation initiation to elucidate potential new therapeutic avenues.

Basic Principles of Translational Control

Mechanism of Translation Initiation

Translation initiation is the main step in translational regulation. Translation initiation is a complex process in which the initiator tRNA and the 40S and 60S ribosomal subunits are recruited to the 5′ end of a mRNA molecule and assembled by eukaryotic translation initiation factors into an 80S ribosome at the start codon of the mRNA (Fig. 1). The 5′ end of eukaryotic mRNA is capped, *i.e.*, contains the cap structure m^7GpppN (7-methylguanosine-triphospho-5′-ribonucleoside). Most translation in eukaryotes occurs in a cap-dependent fashion, *i.e.*, the cap is specifically recognized by the eIF4E,[3] which binds the 5′ cap. The eIF4F translation initiation complex is then formed by the assembly of eIF4E, the RNA helicase eIF4A, and eIF4G, a scaffolding protein that mediates the binding of the 40S ribosomal subunit to the mRNA molecule through interaction with the eIF3 protein present on the 40S ribosome. eIF4A and eIF4B participate in melting the secondary structure of the 5′ UTR of the mRNA. The 43S initiation complex (40S/eIF2/Met-tRNA/GTP complex) scans the mRNA in a 5′→3′ direction until it encounters an AUG start codon. This start codon is then base-paired to the anticodon of initiator tRNA, forming the 48S initiation complex. The initiation factors are then displaced from the 48S complex, and the 60S ribosome joins to form the 80S ribosome.

Unlike most eukaryotic translation, translation initiation of certain mRNAs, such as the picornavirus RNA, is cap independent and occurs by internal ribosome entry. This mechanism does not require eIF4E. Either the 43S complex can bind the initiation codon directly through interaction with the IRES in the 5′ UTR such as in the encephalomyocarditis virus, or it can

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[2] To whom requests for reprints should be addressed, at Department of Surgical Oncology, Box 444, The University of Texas M. D. Anderson Cancer Center, 1515 Holcombe Boulevard, Houston, TX 77030. Phone: (713) 745-4453; Fax: (713) 745-4926; E-mail: fmeric@mdanderson.org.

[3] The abbreviations used are: eIF4E, eukaryotic initiation factor 4E; UTR, untranslated region; IRES, internal ribosome entry site; 4E-BP1, eukaryotic initiation factor 4E-binding protein 1; S6K, ribosomal p70 S6 kinase; mTOR, mammalian target of rapamycin; ATM, ataxia telangiectasia mutated; PI3K, phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase; PTEN, phosphatase and tensin homolog deleted from chromosome 10; PP2A, protein phosphatase 2A; TGF-β3, transforming growth factor-β3; PAP, poly(A) polymerase; EPA, eicosopentaenoic acid; *mda-7*, melanoma differentiation-associated gene 7.

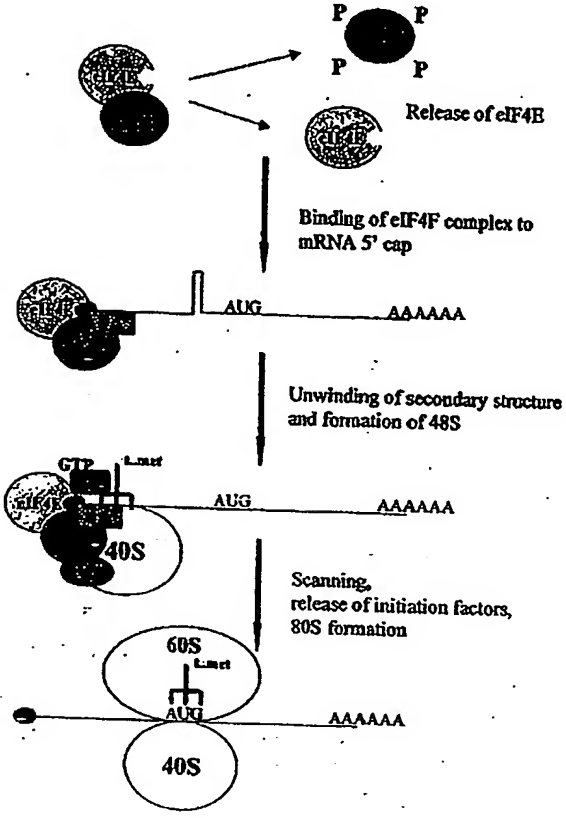

Fig. 1. Translation initiation in eukaryotes. The 4E-BPs are hyperphosphorylated to release eIF4E so that it can interact with the 5′ cap, and the eIF4F initiation complex is assembled. The interaction of poly(A) binding protein with the initiation complex and circularization of the mRNA is not depicted in the diagram. The secondary structure of the 5′ UTR is melted, the 40S ribosomal subunit is bound to eIF3, and the ternary complex consisting of eIF2, GTP, and the Met-tRNA are recruited to the mRNA. The ribosome scans the mRNA in a 5′→3′ direction until an AUG start codon is found in the appropriate sequence context. The initiation factors are released, and the large ribosomal subunit is recruited.

initially attach to the IRES and then reach the initiation codon by scanning or transfer, as is the case with the poliovirus (1).

Regulation of Translation Initiation

Translation initiation can be regulated by alterations in the expression or phosphorylation status of the various factors involved. Key components in translational regulation that may provide potential therapeutic targets follow.

eIF4E. eIF4E plays a central role in translation regulation. It is the least abundant of the initiation factors and is considered the rate-limiting component for initiation of cap-dependent translation. eIF4E may also be involved in mRNA splicing, mRNA 3′ processing, and mRNA nucleocytoplasmic transport (2). eIF4E expression can be increased at the transcriptional level in response to serum or growth factors (3). eIF4E overexpression may cause preferential translation of mRNAs containing excessive secondary structure in their 5′ UTR that are normally discriminated against by the translational machinery and thus are inefficiently translated (4–7). As examples of this, overexpression of eIF4E promotes increased translation of vascular endothelial growth factor, fibroblast growth factor-2, and cyclin D1 (2, 8, 9).

Another mechanism of control is the regulation of eIF4E phosphorylation. eIF4E phosphorylation is mediated by the mitogen-activated protein kinase-interacting kinase 1, which is activated by the mitogen-activated pathway activating extracellular signal-related kinases and the stress-activated pathway acting through p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase (10–13). Several mitogens, such as serum, platelet-derived growth factor, epidermal growth factor, insulin, angiotensin II, src kinase overexpression, and ras overexpression, lead to eIF4E phosphorylation (14). The phosphorylation status of eIF4E is usually correlated with the translational rate and growth status of the cell; however, eIF4E phosphorylation has also been observed in response to some cellular stresses when translational rates actually decrease (15). Thus, further study is needed to understand the effects of eIF4E phosphorylation on eIF4E activity.

Another mechanism of regulation is the alteration of eIF4E availability by the binding of eIF4E to the eIF4E-binding proteins (4E-BP, also known as PHAS-I). 4E-BPs compete with eIF4G for a binding site in eIF4E. The binding of eIF4E to the best characterized eIF4E-binding protein, 4E-BP1, is regulated by 4E-BP1 phosphorylation. Hypophosphorylated 4E-BP1 binds to eIF4E, whereas 4E-BP1 hyperphosphorylation decreases this binding. Insulin, angiotensin, epidermal growth factor, platelet-derived growth factor, hepatocyte growth factor, nerve growth factor, insulin-like growth factors I and II, interleukin 3, granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor + steel factor, gastrin, and the adenovirus have all been reported to induce phosphorylation of 4E-BP1 and to decrease the ability of 4E-BP1 to bind eIF4E (15, 16). Conversely, deprivation of nutrients or growth factors results in 4E-BP1 dephosphorylation, an increase in eIF4E binding, and a decrease in cap-dependent translation.

p70 S6 Kinase. Phosphorylation of ribosomal 40S protein S6 by S6K is thought to play an important role in translational regulation. S6K −/− mouse embryonic cells proliferate more slowly than do parental cells, demonstrating that S6K has a positive influence on cell proliferation (17). S6K regulates the translation of a group of mRNAs possessing a 5′ terminal oligopyrimidine tract (5′ TOP) found at the 5′ UTR of ribosomal protein mRNAs and other mRNAs coding for components of the translational machinery. Phosphorylation of S6K is regulated in part based on the availability of nutrients (18, 19) and is stimulated by several growth factors, such as platelet-derived growth factor and insulin-like growth factor I (20).

eIF2α Phosphorylation. The binding of the initiator tRNA to the small ribosomal unit is mediated by translation initiation factor eIF2. Phosphorylation of the α-subunit of eIF2 prevents formation of the eIF2/GTP/Met-tRNA complex and inhibits global protein synthesis (21, 22). eIF2α is phosphorylated under a variety of conditions, such as viral infection, nutrient deprivation, heme deprivation, and apoptosis (22). eIF2α is phosphorylated by heme-regulated inhibitor, nutrient-regulated protein kinase, and the IFN-induced, double-stranded RNA-activated protein kinase (PKR; Ref. 23).

The mTOR Signaling Pathway. The macrolide antibiotic rapamycin (Sirolimus; Wyeth-Ayerst Research, Collegeville, PA) has been the subject of intensive study because it inhibits signal transduction pathways involved in T-cell activation. The rapamycin-sensitive component of these pathways is mTOR (also called FRAP or RAFT1). mTOR is the mammalian homologue of the yeast TOR proteins that regulate G_1 progression and translation in response to nutrient availability (24). mTOR is a serine-threonine kinase that modulates translation initiation by altering the phosphorylation status of 4E-BP1 and S6K (Fig. 2; Ref. 25).

4E-BP1 is phosphorylated on multiple residues. mTOR phosphorylates the Thr-37 and Thr-46 residues of 4E-BP1 *in vitro* (26); however, phosphorylation at these sites is not associated with a loss of eIF4E binding. Phosphorylation of Thr-37 and Thr-46 is required for subsequent phosphorylation at several COOH-terminal, serum-sensitive sites; a combination of these phosphorylation events appears to be needed to inhibit the binding of 4E-BP1 to eIF4E (25). The product of the *ATM* gene, p38/MSK1 pathway, and protein kinase Cσ also play a role in 4E-BP1 phosphorylation (27–29).

S6K and 4E-BP1 are also regulated, in part, by PI3K and its downstream protein kinase Akt. PTEN is a phosphatase that negatively regulates PI3K signaling. PTEN null cells have constitutively active of Akt, with increased S6K activity and S6 phosphorylation (30). S6K activity is inhibited both by PI3K inhibitors wortmannin and LY294002 and by mTOR inhibitor rapamycin (24). Akt phosphorylates Ser-2448 in mTOR *in vitro*, and this site is phosphorylated upon Akt activation *in vivo* (31–33). Thus, mTOR is regulated by the PI3K/Akt pathway; however, this does not appear to be the only mode of regulation of mTOR activity. Whether the PI3K pathway also regulates S6K and 4E-BP1 phosphorylation independent of mTOR is controversial.

Interestingly, mTOR autophosphorylation is blocked by wortmannin but not by rapamycin (34). This seeming inconsistency suggests that mTOR-responsive regulation of 4E-BP1 and S6K activity occurs through a mechanism other than intrinsic mTOR kinase activity. An alternate pathway for 4E-BP1 and S6K phosphorylation by mTOR activity is by the inhibition of a phosphatase. Treatment with calyculin A, an inhibitor of phosphatases 1 and 2A, reduces rapamycin-induced dephosphorylation of 4E-BP1 and S6K by rapamycin (35). PP2A interacts with full-length S6K but not with a S6K mutant that is resistant to dephosphorylation resulting from rapamycin. mTOR phosphorylates PP2A *in vitro*; however, how this process alters PP2A activity is not known. These results are consistent with the model that phosphorylation of a phosphatase by mTOR prevents dephosphorylation of 4E-BP1 and S6K, and conversely, that nutrient deprivation and rapamycin block inhibition of the phosphatase by mTOR.

Polyadenylation. The poly(A) tail in eukaryotic mRNA is important in enhancing translation initiation and mRNA stability. Polyadenylation plays a key role in regulating gene expression during oogenesis and early embryogenesis. Some mRNA that are translationally inactive in the oocyte are polyadenylated concomitantly with translational activation in oocyte maturation, whereas other mRNAs that are translationally active during oogenesis are deadenylated and translationally silenced (36–38). Thus, control of poly(A) tail synthesis is an important regulatory step in gene expression. The 5′ cap and poly(A) tail are thought to function synergistically to regulate mRNA translational efficiency (39, 40).

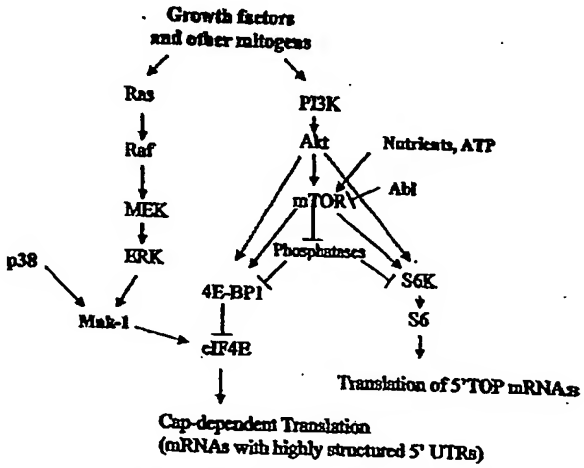

Fig. 2. Regulation of translation initiation by signal transduction pathways. Signaling via p38, extracellular signal-related kinase, PI3K, and mTOR can all activate translation initiation.

RNA Packaging. Most RNA-binding proteins are assembled on a transcript at the time of transcription, thus determining the translational fate of the transcript (41). A highly conserved family of Y-box proteins is found in cytoplasmic messenger ribonucleoprotein particles, where the proteins are thought to play a role in restricting the recruitment of mRNA to the translational machinery (41–43). The major mRNA-associated protein, YB-1, destabilizes the interaction of eIF4E and the 5′ mRNA cap *in vitro*, and overexpression of YB-1 results in translational repression *in vivo* (44). Thus, alterations in RNA packaging can also play an important role in translational regulation.

Translation Alterations Encountered in Cancer

Three main alterations at the translational level occur in cancer: variations in mRNA sequences that increase or decrease translational efficiency, changes in the expression or availability of components of the translational machinery, and activation of translation through aberrantly activated signal transduction pathways. The first alteration affects the translation of an individual mRNA that may play a role in carcinogenesis. The second and third alterations can lead to more global changes, such as an increase in the overall rate of protein synthesis, and the translational activation of several mRNA species.

Variations in mRNA Sequence

Variations in mRNA sequence affect the translational efficiency of the transcript. A brief description of these variations and examples of each mechanism follow.

Mutations. Mutations in the mRNA sequence, especially in the 5′ UTR, can alter its translational efficiency, as seen in the following examples.

c-myc. Saito *et al.* proposed that translation of full-length *c-myc* is repressed, whereas in several Burkitt lymphomas that have deletions of the mRNA 5′ UTR, translation of *c-myc* is more efficient (45). More recently, it was reported that the 5′ UTR of *c-myc* contains an IRES, and thus *c-myc* translation can be initiated by a cap-independent as well as a cap-dependent mechanism (46, 47). In patients with multiple myeloma, a C→T mutation in the c-myc IRES was identified (48) and found to cause an enhanced initiation of translation via internal ribosomal entry (49).

BRCA1. A somatic point mutation (117 G→C) in position −3 with respect to the start codon of the *BRCA1* gene was identified in a highly aggressive sporadic breast cancer (50). Chimeric constructs consisting of the wild-type or mutated *BRCA1* 5′ UTR and a downstream luciferase reporter demonstrated a decrease in the translational efficiency with the 5′ UTR mutation.

Cyclin-dependent Kinase Inhibitor 2A. Some inherited melanoma kindreds have a G→T transversion at base −34 of cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor-2A, which encodes a cyclin-dependent kinase 4/cyclin-dependent kinase 6 kinase inhibitor important in G_1 checkpoint regulation (51). This mutation gives rise to a novel AUG translation initiation codon, creating an upstream open reading frame that competes for scanning ribosomes and decreases translation from the wild-type AUG.

Alternate Splicing and Alternate Transcription Start Sites. Alterations in splicing and alternate transcription sites can lead to variations in 5′ UTR sequence, length, and secondary structure, ultimately impacting translational efficiency.

ATM. The *ATM* gene has four noncoding exons in its 5′ UTR that undergo extensive alternative splicing (52). The contents of 12 different 5′ UTRs that show considerable diversity in length and sequence have been identified. These divergent 5′ leader sequences play an important role in the translational regulation of the *ATM* gene.

mdm. In a subset of tumors, overexpression of the oncoprotein mdm2 results in enhanced translation of the *mdm2* mRNA. Use of different promoters leads to two *mdm2* transcripts that differ only in their 5′ leaders (53). The longer 5′ UTR contains two upstream open reading frames, and this mRNA is loaded with ribosomes inefficiently compared with the short 5′ UTR.

BRCA1. In a normal mammary gland, *BRCA1* mRNA is expressed with a shorter leader sequence (5′UTRa), whereas in sporadic breast cancer tissue, *BRCA1* mRNA is expressed with a longer leader sequence (5′ UTRb); the translational efficiency of transcripts containing 5′ UTRb is 10 times lower than that of transcripts containing 5′ UTRa (54).

TGF-β3. *TGF-β3* mRNA includes a 1.1-kb 5′ UTR, which exerts an inhibitory effect on translation. Many human breast cancer cell lines contain a novel *TGF-β3* transcript with a 5′ UTR that is 870 nucleotides shorter and has a 7-fold greater translational efficiency than the normal *TGF-β3* mRNA (55).

Alternate Polyadenylation Sites. Multiple polyadenylation signals leading to the generation of several transcripts with differing 3′ UTR have been described for several mRNA species, such as the *RET* proto-oncogene (56), *ATM* gene (52), tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases-3 (57), *RHOA* proto-oncogene (58), and calmodulin-I (59). Although the effect of these alternate 3′ UTRs on translation is not yet known, they may be important in RNA-protein interactions that affect translational recruitment. The role of these alterations in cancer development and progression is unknown.

Alterations in the Components of the Translation Machinery

Alterations in the components of translation machinery can take many forms.

Overexpresssion of eIF4E. Overexpression of eIF4E causes malignant transformation in rodent cells (60) and the deregulation of HeLa cell growth (61). Polunovsky *et al.* (62) found that eIF4E overexpression substitutes for serum and individual growth factors in preserving viability of fibroblasts, which suggests that eIF4E can mediate both proliferative and survival signaling.

Elevated levels of eIF4E mRNA have been found in a broad spectrum of transformed cell lines (63). eIF4E levels are elevated in all ductal carcinoma *in situ* specimens and invasive ductal carcinomas, compared with benign breast specimens evaluated with Western blot analysis (64, 65). Preliminary studies suggest that this overexpression is attributable to gene amplification (66).

There are accumulating data suggesting that eIF4E overexpression can be valuable as a prognostic marker. eIF4E overexpression was found in a retrospective study to be a marker of poor prognosis in stages I to III breast carcinoma (67). Verification of the prognostic value of eIF4E in breast cancer is now under way in a prospective trial (67). However, in a different study, eIF4E expression was correlated with the aggressive behavior of non-Hodgkin's lymphomas (68). In a prospective analysis of patients with head and neck cancer, elevated levels of eIF4E in histologically tumor-free surgical margins predicted a significantly increased risk of local-regional recurrence (9). These results all suggest that eIF4E overexpression can be used to select patients who might benefit from more aggressive systemic therapy. Furthermore, the head and neck cancer data suggest that eIF4E overexpression is a field defect and can be used to guide local therapy.

Alterations in Other Initiation Factors. Alterations in a number of other initiation factors have been associated with cancer. Overproduction of eIF4G, similar to eIF4E, leads to malignant transformation *in vitro* (69). eIF-2α is found in increased levels in bronchioloalveolar carcinomas of the lung (3). Initiation factor eIF-4A1 is overexpressed in melanoma (70) and hepatocellular carcinoma (71). The p40 subunit of translation initiation factor 3 is amplified and overexpressed in breast and prostate cancer (72), and the eIF3-p110 subunit is overexpressed in testicular seminoma (73). The role that overexpression of these initiation factors plays on the development and progression of cancer, if any, is not known.

Overexpression of S6K. S6K is amplified and highly overexpressed in the MCF7 breast cancer cell line, compared with normal mammary epithelium (74). In a study by Barlund *et al.* (74), S6K was amplified in 59 of 668 primary breast tumors, and a statistically significant association was observed between amplification and poor prognosis.

Overexpression of PAP. PAP catalyzes 3′ poly(A) synthesis. PAP is overexpressed in human cancer cells compared with normal and virally transformed cells (75). PAP enzymatic activity in breast tumors has been correlated with PAP protein levels (76) and, in mammary tumor cytosols, was found to be an independent factor for predicting survival (76). Little is known, however, about how PAP expression or activity affects the translational profile.

Alterations in RNA-binding Proteins. Even less is known about alterations in RNA packaging in cancer. Increased expression and nuclear localization of the RNA-binding protein YB-1 are indicators of a poor prognosis for breast cancer (77), non-small cell lung cancer (78), and ovarian cancer (79). However, this effect may be mediated at least in part at the level of transcription, because YB-1 increases chemoresistance by enhancing the transcription of a multidrug resistance gene (80).

Activation of Signal Transduction Pathways

Activation of signal transduction pathways by loss of tumor suppressor genes or overexpression of certain tyrosine kinases can contribute to the growth and aggressiveness of tumors. An important mutant in human cancers is the tumor suppressor gene *PTEN*, which leads to the activation of the PI3K/Akt pathway. Activation of PI3K and Akt induces the oncogenic transformation of chicken embryo fibroblasts. The transformed cells show constitutive phosphorylation of S6K and of 4E-BP1 (81). A mutant Akt that retains kinase activity but does not phosphorylate S6K or 4E-BP1 does not transform fibroblasts, which suggests a correlation between the oncogenicity of PI3K and Akt and the phosphorylation of S6K and 4E-BP1 (81).

Several tyrosine kinases such as platelet-derived growth factor, insulin-like growth factor, HER2/neu, and epidermal growth factor receptor are overexpressed in cancer. Because these kinases activate downstream signal transduction pathways known to alter translation initiation, activation of translation is likely to contribute to the growth and aggressiveness of these tumors. Furthermore, the mRNA for many of these kinases themselves are under translational control. For example, HER2/neu mRNA is translationally controlled both by a short upstream open reading frame that represses HER2/neu translation in a cell type-independent manner and by a distinct cell type-dependent mechanism that increases translational efficiency (82). HER2/neu translation is different in transformed and normal cells. Thus, it is possible that alterations at the translational level can in part account for the discrepancy between *HER2/neu* gene amplification detected by fluorescence *in situ* hybridization and protein levels detected by immunohistochemical assays.

Translation Targets of Selected Cancer Therapy

Components of the translation machinery and signal pathways involved in the activation of translation initiation represent good targets for cancer therapy.

Targeting the mTOR Signaling Pathway: Rapamycin and Tumstatin

Rapamycin inhibits the proliferation of lymphocytes. It was initially developed as an immunosuppressive drug for organ transplantation. Rapamycin with FKBP 12 (FK506-binding protein, M_r 12,000) binds to mTOR to inhibit its function.

Rapamycin causes a small but significant reduction in the initiation rate of protein synthesis (83). It blocks cell growth in part by blocking S6 phosphorylation and selectively suppressing the translation of 5′ TOP mRNAs, such as ribosomal proteins, and elongation factors (83–85). Rapamycin also blocks 4E-BP1 phosphorylation and inhibits cap-dependent but not cap-independent translation (17, 86).

The rapamycin-sensitive signal transduction pathway, activated during malignant transformation and cancer progression, is now being studied as a target for cancer therapy (87). Prostate, breast, small cell lung, glioblastoma, melanoma, and T-cell leukemia are among the cancer lines most sensitive to the rapamycin analogue CCI-779 (Wyeth-Ayerst Research; Ref. 87). In rhabdomyosarcoma cell lines, rapamycin is either cytostatic or cytocidal, depending on the p53 status of the cell; p53 wild-type cells treated with rapamycin arrest in the G_1 phase and maintain their viability, whereas p53 mutant cells accumulate in G_1 and undergo apoptosis (88, 89). In a recently reported study using human primitive neuroectodermal tumor and medulloblastoma models, rapamycin exhibited more cytotoxicity in combination with cisplatin and camptothecin than as a single agent. *In vivo*, CCI-779 delayed growth of xenografts by 160% after 1 week of therapy and 240% after 2 weeks. A single high-dose administration caused a 37% decrease in tumor volume. Growth inhibition *in vivo* was 1.3 times greater, with cisplatin in combination with CCI-779 than with cisplatin alone (90). Thus, preclinical studies suggest that rapamycin analogues are useful as single agents and in combination with chemotherapy.

Rapamycin analogues CCI-779 and RAD001 (Novartis, Basel, Switzerland) are now in clinical trials. Because of the known effect of rapamycin on lymphocyte proliferation, a potential problem with rapamycin analogues is immunosuppression. However, although prolonged immunosuppression can result from rapamycin and CCI-779 administered on continuous-dose schedules, the immunosuppressive effects of rapamycin analogues resolve in ~24 h after therapy (91). The principal toxicities of CCI-779 have included dermatological toxicity, myelosuppression, infection, mucositis, diarrhea, reversible elevations in liver function tests, hyperglycemia, hypokalemia, hypocalcemia, and depression (87, 92–94). Phase II trials of CCI-779 have been conducted in advanced renal cell carcinoma and in stage III/IV breast carcinoma patients who failed with prior chemotherapy. In the results reported in abstract form, although there were no complete responses, partial responses were documented in both renal cell carcinoma and in breast carcinoma (94, 95). Thus, CCI-779 has documented preliminary clinical activity in a previously treated, unselected patient population.

Active investigation is under way into patient selection for mTOR inhibitors. Several studies have found an enhanced efficacy of CCI-779 in PTEN-null tumors (30, 96). Another study found that six of eight breast cancer cell lines were responsive to CCI-779, although only two of these lines lacked PTEN (97) There was, however, a positive correlation between Akt activation and CCI-779 sensitivity (97). This correlation suggests that activation of the PI3K-Akt pathway,

regardless of whether it is attributable to a PTEN mutation or to overexpression of receptor tyrosine kinases, makes cancer cell amenable to mTOR-directed therapy. In contrast, lower levels of the target of mTOR, 4E-BP1, are associated with rapamycin resistance; thus, a lower 4E-BP1/eIF4E ratio may predict rapamycin resistance (98).

Another mode of activity for rapamycin and its analogues appears to be through inhibition of angiogenesis. This activity may be both through direct inhibition of endothelial cell proliferation as a result of mTOR inhibition in these cells or by inhibition of translation of such proangiogenic factors as vascular endothelial growth factor in tumor cells (99, 100).

The angiogenesis inhibitor tumstatin, another anticancer drug currently under study, was also found recently to inhibit translation in endothelial cells (101). Through a requisite interaction with integrin, tumstatin inhibits activation of the PI3K/Akt pathway and mTOR in endothelial cells and prevents dissociation of eIF4E from 4E-BP1, thereby inhibiting cap-dependent translation. These findings suggest that endothelial cells are especially sensitive to therapies targeting the mTOR-signaling pathway.

Targeting eIF2α: EPA, Clotrimazole, mda-7, and Flavonoids

EPA is an n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid found in the fish-based diets of populations having a low incidence of cancer (102). EPA inhibits the proliferation of cancer cells (103), as well as in animal models (104, 105). It blocks cell division by inhibiting translation initiation (105). EPA releases Ca^{2+} from intracellular stores while inhibiting their refilling, thereby activating PKR. PKR, in turn phosphorylates and inhibits eIF2α, resulting in the inhibition of protein synthesis at the level of translation initiation. Similarly, clotrimazole, a potent antiproliferative agent *in vitro* and *in vivo*, inhibits cell growth through depletion of Ca^{2+} stores, activation of PKR, and phosphorylation of eIF2α (106). Consequently, clotrimazole preferentially decreases the expression of cyclins A, E, and D1, resulting in blockage of the cell cycle in G_1.

mda-7 is a novel tumor suppressor gene being developed as a gene therapy agent. Adenoviral transfer of *mda-7* (Ad-mda7) induces apoptosis in many cancer cells including breast, colorectal, and lung cancer (107–109). Ad-mda7 also induces and activates PKR, which leads to phosphorylation of eIF2α and induction of apoptosis (110).

Flavonoids such as genistein and quercetin suppress tumor cell growth. All three mammalian eIF2α kinases, PKR, heme-regulated inhibitor, and PERK/PEK, are activated by flavonoids, with phosphorylation of eIF2α and inhibition of protein synthesis (111).

Targeting eIF4A and eIF4E: Antisense RNA and Peptides

Antisense expression of eIF4A decreases the proliferation rate of melanoma cells (112). Sequestration of eIF4E by overexpression of 4E-BP1 is proapoptotic and decreases tumorigenicity (113, 114). Reduction of eIF4E with antisense RNA decreases soft agar growth, increases tumor latency, and increases the rates of tumor doubling times (7). Antisense eIF4E RNA treatment also reduces the expression of angiogenic factors (115) and has been proposed as a potential adjuvant therapy for head and neck cancers, particularly when elevated eIF4E is found in surgical margins. Small molecule inhibitors that bind the eIF4G/4E-BP1-binding domain of eIF4E are proapoptotic (116) and are also being actively pursued.

Exploiting Selective Translation for Gene Therapy

A different therapeutic approach that takes advantage of the enhanced cap-dependent translation in cancer cells is the use of gene therapy vectors encoding suicide genes with highly structured 5′ UTR. These mRNA would thus be at a competitive disadvantage in normal cells and not translate well, whereas in cancer cells, they would translate more efficiently. For example, the introduction of the 5′ UTR of fibroblast growth factor-2 5′ to the coding sequence of *herpes simplex virus type-1 thymidine kinase* gene, allows for selective translation of *herpes simplex virus type-1 thymidine kinase* gene in breast cancer cell lines compared with normal mammary cell lines and results in selective sensitivity to ganciclovir (117).

Toward the Future

Translation is a crucial process in every cell. However, several alterations in translational control occur in cancer. Cancer cells appear to need an aberrantly activated translational state for survival, thus allowing the targeting of translation initiation with surprisingly low toxicity. Components of the translational machinery, such as eIF4E, and signal transduction pathways involved in translation initiation, such mTOR, represent promising targets for cancer therapy. Inhibitors of the mTOR have already shown some preliminary activity in clinical trials. It is possible that with the development of better predictive markers and better patient selection, response rates to single-agent therapy can be improved. Similar to other cytostatic agents, however, mTOR inhibitors are most likely to achieve clinical utility in combination therapy. In the interim, our increasing understanding of translation initiation and signal transduction pathways promise to lead to the identification of new therapeutic targets in the near future.

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